

TODAY'S SPEECH

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How to Deliver A Speech — When and How to Use Notes

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Rules for Conversation

From a British magazine we pluck the following suggestions:

1. Never tell funny stories about your own children unless you are certain you would be amused if Mrs. Whoop-to-do told them to you about hers.
2. Never try to start a long conversation with someone who obviously is busy, with his mind on something else.
3. Never talk to yourself in the middle of talking to others. ("Let's see: was it really the last week in August? Maybe it was the first week in September. I know it was after Aunt Minnie left. Yes —it was August.")
4. Never describe the plot of a motion picture your victims haven't seen or a best-selling novel they have not yet read.
5. Never apologize for something you're really proud of ("I don't know anything about art, music, or poetry but . . .").
6. Above all, *never* forget that it is far more of a strain—and less enjoyable for most people to listen than to do the talking. (And don't feel that you have to "top" every story told to you.)

Gerald Marsh: Philosophy of Liberal Education

Speech Is Civilization - - Silence Isolates

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AN OPEN LETTER

to a Beginning Speech Student

By PAUL D. HOLTZMAN

The psychologists advise that for success in learning public speaking, as in the development of all skills, the "level of aspiration" MUST be attainable and realistic, not wishful and unrealistic.

Dear Student:

YOU HAVE KNOWN THE FEELING. You are about to meet an important person and you plan every word that you will say. Or you are to make a brief announcement to a large group and you get every word down pat. And when the time comes you suffer the embarrassment of forgetting the words or garbling them—much as Phil Harris might say, "The stander I drunk here the longer I get."

No great technical knowledge of speech will in itself necessarily change this picture. Nor will more hours of preparation of your word-for-word "speech" be likely to put you at ease and make you fluent and flawless.

There *are* some tools that you may use to help you attain your purposes in speaking—tools which you may use in your speech class to achieve effective speech. Your instructor and your text book will provide these tools.

Simply reading a text book or listening to an instructor, however, will not in themselves make you an effective speaker. No author or teacher wields such a magic wand. Nor will application of only those tools which come most easily—while ignoring those which prove more difficult and perhaps *temporarily* embarrassing — provide the training you are seeking.

Very basic to your progress in public speaking class are the attitudes with which you attack the job of learning to speak more effectively. What are your attitudes? What are your goals? Let me suggest a few.

First of all, *get some fun out of speaking*

Consider another skill for a moment. A golfer who can occasionally "break 100" enjoys the game as much or perhaps more than the par-shooting professional. His goal is to enjoy the game with a few friends and perhaps to improve enough some day to shoot in the lower nineties. He expects to dub a few and to slice some shots into the rough. And he knows that if he bears down and tries to

shoot "over his head" he is likely to do much worse and to lose most of the enjoyment. One partner of mine watched a long hook-shot curve and splash into the ocean and said proudly: "That's the longest ball I ever hit."

And yet, if this golfer were to come into a speech class, he might set his goal at a non-existent 100 percent perfect speaking—bearing down all the way and enjoying not a minute.

Instead, as a student in your speech class, decide to get some fun out of speaking. Make that a *primary* goal. Don't burden and hamper yourself with a goal you shouldn't expect to achieve any more than our golfer should expect to shoot flawless golf. No one does a perfect job of speaking—neither your instructor nor the very finest lecturer you have ever heard. But anybody can enjoy telling a story, engaging in an argument, whipping up some enthusiasm or explaining something new. And that covers just about anything you'll want to do with speaking.

Secondly, in your speech class *converse with your audience.*

The great silver-tongued orator—admired *only* because of his eloquence—has been exposed by history. He's a phenomenon of the past. When people say to me, "I heard Professor Lucius P. Eloquent lecture last night. My, he's a wonderful speaker," I respond by asking, "What did he say?" Usually the answer runs something like: "Uh. . . something about. . .uh. . .well,, it was just wonderful to listen to him."

Such a speaker may sound good. But he has little additional effect. A good symphony or jazz concert would sound much better.

But I have heard: "I went to hear a fellow talk last night—think his name is Converse or something like that. I don't agree with some of the things he said but he changed my mind about what we should do. . ." Then I have heard about an effective speaker. The what-did-he-say ques-

tion elicits a report of the speaker's attitudes and how he supported them. And a question of "What kind of a speaker is he" gets a response like: "Oh, I didn't notice particularly. He just seems to converse with his audience—as if he's just talking with you, that's all."

So make it your second goal to achieve a feeling about your talks before the group that they are no more than planned conversations. Learn not to *perform* or *present* or *talk at* — but to *talk with* your group. It will help, in this regard, always to permit time for a few questions from your class audience at the end of any talk. And this practice will make it more fun too.

Thirdly: *start where you are.*

You are not really a beginning speaker. You've been talking for a long time.

If our 100-shooting golfer were suddenly confronted one morning with a gallery of several hundred persons who had come to watch his play, his skill would depend much upon his attitudes toward his audience. If the presence of the gallery meant to him that he must exhibit expert golfing, you know that he would "press" and shoot everywhere but on the fairways. But if he felt called upon only to play his usual game with its occasional misguided shots, he and the audience would have an enjoyable round.

So, too, as you develop your speaking, you may increase your fears and errors and forgetting by trying to be an expert speaker too early. You and your audience and your instructor must expect to face some embarrassment, some feelings of awkwardness and some mistakes throughout the course. And they will disappear most readily under indirect attack as you adjust more and more to the speaking situation.

Make it your third goal, then, to begin your development "as you are" rather than as the perfect speaker who doesn't exist. This advice does not mean to adopt an I-don't-care attitude. You always *do* care when you are striving to have an idea accepted in conversation or in a public speech.

Which brings us to a fourth goal: *be concerned with what you say.*

Many students, when they begin, are concerned with mechanics they have heard or read about. They want to "learn good diction" or to "develop a pleasing voice." These are worthy goals and may be attained. But very frequently—depending upon how they are attacked—they may get in the way of the main objective. You can see that heavy con-

centration on these factors of speech may distract you from the over-all job of communication. Perhaps later in your course or after it you will want to take stock of your voice and articulation with an eye to increasing your communicative ability that much more.

A fourth goal, then, is to have primary concern with what you say rather than how you say it—particularly during the first weeks of your course.

Fifth: *treat the classroom as a practical situation.*

Many students of speaking tend to regard the speech class as an artificial audience and then add to the artificiality by "pretending" to talk to an imagined group such as the House of Representatives or a local Kiwanis Club. Or even farther from the mark—they think of no audience at all.

A speech class provides, however, a very real and practical situation. Your classmates comprise a very live, responding audience. They will respond according to their own interests and desires—not according to the interests and desires of newspaper-reading congressmen or service club members with minds on the afternoon's business.

Make it your fifth goal to learn to know your classmates as individuals and as a group. When you prepare, prepare for that group. And when you talk, talk with that group. This principle will provide more practical experience in adjusting to an audience than would the process of practicing adaptation to an audience that isn't there.

Finally: *stick with your guides.*

The textbook you will use and your instructor will present a number of procedures, methods, techniques, exercises and attitudes. They may not represent all that may be said or prescribed. They are usually carefully selected, however, by author and teacher as the most effective and practical means to achieving habits of purposeful and effective communication. They are your guides to successful speaking.

If you select a guide to direct you through an unfamiliar wilderness, you do so with the determination to stick with him throughout the journey. Even if he selects a path through dense jungle, which entails hard work and many pitfalls, you would not dare leave him to take what might appear an easier trail over open meadow. For you know that while this course might make travel easier, it will also carry you away from your proposed destination.

You will find that following certain steps and

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How To Deliver A Speech

By JAMES H. HENNING

The Head of the Speech Department of West Virginia State University presents a sequel to his article, "How to Prepare a Speech," which appeared in TODAY'S SPEECH, October 1953.

"WHICH IS MORE IMPORTANT, *what* the speaker says, or *how* he says it?" In other words, which is more important in a speech, content or delivery? The problem suggested by this question is a general one among public speakers, and many debates and arguments have resulted between those who hold that "content" is more important and those who support the "delivery" aspect. The wasted energy developed from the heat of some of those arguments could, if captured, drive several railroad locomotives or turbo-jet engines. It would be just as sensible to argue about whether a person's head is more important than his body.

Factually, the dichotomy established by the question is fallacious. A speech is a *five-fold* act, of which *two* of its parts are content (invention) and delivery, the other three being style, organization, and memory. Any speech, to be complete, must involve all five of these parts, no one of which is more important than any of the others. It can be said, however, that "*no speech is better than the ideas that go into it*." This does not mean, of course, that the other four phases of the speech act are unimportant, but it does mean that no amount of organization, style, or delivery techniques can compensate for a lack of worth-while ideas—something important enough to say."

But certainly delivery is an important aspect of communication in the oral medium. In fact, it is important enough to cause a great many speakers a good deal of worry and trepidation, so much so that many try to solve the problem of delivery by doing the wrong things and resorting to the worst possible solution available: that of either delivering the speech from memory or reading it from manuscript. More about this later. It is a mistake to imagine that somehow your delivery of ideas and feelings in a public speaking situation is different from the delivery of ideas and feelings in conversation. It should be remembered that you are the same person doing the communicating in both situations. You use the same voice, the same arm movements and gestures, the same bodily action, the same intensity of utterance, the same

inflections and vocal variations to depict finer shades of meanings in public speaking situations that you use in your conversation. *It is the desire to communicate that is the key.* If that desire to communicate is present in the public speech as it is usually present in conversation, the delivery problem will pretty well solve itself so far as gestures, facial expression, movement, and vocal patterns are concerned. It is only when we think we should put on a different type of movement and activity when we give a speech that we run into difficulty and become stiff, inactive, and post-like in our speaking.*

In view of the above, it can be concluded that delivery is *not* a set of techniques which we put on like a uniform for a particular occasion. Rather, it is an integral and consistent aspect of the speech as a whole, and its correct form is prompted by a desire on the part of the speaker to communicate certain ideas and feelings to an audience. Its component parts are (1) voice (what the audience hears) and (2) action (what the audience sees), integrated and utilized for a common purpose: the effective communication of ideas and feelings.

Each of these component parts (voice and action) might be said to have four inherent aspects. For voice the four would be: (1) *clarity*, which means that the words uttered by the speaker should be spoken distinctly and precisely enough to be readily understood and recognized by the audience; (2) *audibility*, which means that the volume with which the words are uttered should be sufficient for easy listening even by those who are seated farthest from the speaker; (3) *pleasantness*, which means that the sounds the speaker utters should be agreeable to the listeners, and which implies good voice quality and enough vocal variety in pitch, rate, force, emphasis, melody pattern, and emotional content to avoid mon-

* For some excellent suggestions on how to achieve this desire to communicate see Otis M. Walter's article on "Developing Confidence" in the September, 1954, issue of *Today's Speech*. p. 5.

otony; and (4) *correctness of grammar and sentence structure*, even in the most informal situations.

The four inherent aspects of action are: (1) *bodily control*, which implies emotional control and voluntary rather than involuntary activity; (2) *physical animation*, which results from a keen desire to communicate and to get your idea across to the listeners, and which involves a bodily "set" of aliveness as contrasted with stolidness; (3) *directness*, both physical and mental, which means looking into the eyes of the members of the audience rather than over their heads, at the floor, ceiling, notes, or out of the windows, and manifesting a mental state of communication rather than audible reflection or merely thinking out loud; and (4) *change* to avoid monotony.

The composite integration of these eight aspects of delivery to the extent that they reinforce and supplement each other in producing a unified effect would result in showing the audience a speaker who is (1) manifesting poise, (2) emotionally stable, (3) sincere, (4) honestly communicating, (5) thoroughly prepared, (6) radiating positive suggestion, (7) commanding attention, and (8) confident that his audience will respond to him as he wishes them to.

The problem of reading his speech, memorizing it, or speaking extemporaneously also confronts the speaker. The statement was made earlier that many speakers, panic-stricken by the prospect of delivery, attempt to assure themselves of success by writing the speech out and reading it to the audience, or by memorizing it and trying to deliver it from memory, both of which are the worst possible solutions that might be chosen. These two methods of delivery are the most difficult of all methods and require an experienced and well-trained speaker to be effective. With the inexperienced or untrained speaker attempting such methods, the resulting speech *sounds* read or *sounds* memorized, and this is deadening so far as the audience is concerned. The speaker suffers in audience respect, he loses their attention, he fails to communicate well, he becomes monotonous, his language is written rather than oral, and he succeeds only in producing suffering on the part of his would-be listeners. Avoid these types of delivery unless you are skillful and experienced enough to write exactly as you talk, and can deliver the speech in such a way that it sounds completely extemporaneous. If you are

that skillful or experienced, you do not need to be reading this article.

The neophyte should always choose the extemporaneous method of delivery, which, after all, is the easiest and best, since it provides him with the greatest latitude in word selection, the best chance of being natural and easy, and offers him the most opportunity to "be himself". Fixing in mind *ideas*, their sequence, and their approximate method of development is much more conducive to comfort and ease than the falsely appearing "easier" method of trying to remember words and their exact sequence. One false step in the latter and you are doomed, whereas in the former, an idea or a complete section of your speech can inadvertently be left out without the audience ever being aware of it, and you can go on to the end of the speech successfully.

Extemporaneous speaking is not, of course, unprepared or spur-of-the-moment speaking. These would be termed "impromptu". Rather, the extemporaneous speech needs to be meticulously planned, carefully outlined, and adequately practiced. If, however, the speaker follows the method of speech preparation suggested in the author's earlier article in this magazine, he will have at his disposal all the necessary preparation for speaking extemporaneously, providing he has taken sufficient time to fix in mind his outline, the exactness of his ideas, their relationship to each other, the illustrations and examples he will use, and the method he will follow in developing each of his ideas.

Should you use notes while delivering the speech? Should you take a copy of your outline to the platform with you? Well, the answer to both questions is: that depends. It depends upon the speaker himself, how self-reliant he is, and how well he is acquainted with his subject. It depends also upon the nature of the subject. In the first place let me state rather categorically that as a speaker it behooves you to learn to believe in yourself and your ability to see yourself through a speech without mechanical aids such as notes, outlines, prompt cards, etc. Their very presence upon the lectern in front of you constitutes a temptation to use them more than is necessary. When you refer to them, directness is broken, audience contact suffers, and audience assurance in you as a speaker is affected. Avoid them if at all possible. If a speaker cannot believe in him-

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CENSORSHIP ON THE CAMPUS

BY ARTHUR N. KRUGER

The debate director at Wilkes College considers the problem which has stirred up the greatest controversy in many years in debate circles.

A FEW WEEKS AGO THE NEWSPAPERS REPORTED that The Council of Catholic Colleges was protesting the adoption of the 1954-55 National College Debate resolution, "Resolved, That The U. S. Should Extend Diplomatic Recognition To Red China." The report went on to say in effect that the Council had recommended that Catholic institutions refuse to debate the affirmative side of this question.

Meanwhile the State Legislature of Nebraska has gone on record as refusing to allocate funds for any debate program in the state-supported institutions which includes debates on this year's topic. Now I have received word that the service academies at West Point, Annapolis, and King's Point will not be permitted to debate this topic "for reasons," as my informant put it, "of national policy."

As a result of this latter circumstance, The Committee on Debate and Forensics of the Eastern Forensic Association has sent a questionnaire to all members of the EFA to determine "their reaction to this mounting forensic crisis" and to ascertain their views concerning the advisability of adopting an alternate resolution for the 1954-55 debating season so that the service schools will be able to carry on a debate program this year. As Prof. Westhof of St. John's University, Chairman of the Committee on Debate and Forensics, in his accompanying letter to the members of the EFA, states the case:

The urgency of this matter seems great. Authorities of some Colleges and Universities are taking the same action on the National Topic as the authorities at West Point, Annapolis, and Kings Point. Entire debate programs are seriously endangered and some already discontinued because of adverse critical reactions from Boards of Administration resulting directly from the impact of the National Topic. On some campuses the very life of intercollegiate debating is at stake.

Surely, if we could be or any assistance in this regrettable forensic crisis we would be rendering an invaluable service to some of our most honored debate colleagues and institutions, who have contributed so much to the prestige of intercollegiate debating through the years and throughout the nation.

Prof. Westhof's subsequent remarks are illuminating in that they reveal quite clearly his own stand on the matter (I have since been informed that there is no such committee as that designated by Prof. Westhof and that the latter was not authorized to poll the members of the EFA on this matter):

Fortunately at St. John's University, as at most Colleges and Universities, the authorities have expressed complete confidence in our ability to cope with the serious dilemma which the Affirmative of the National Topic poses on matters of principle and national policy. But we are not oblivious to the dangers, and we deeply respect those who for reasons of principle or national policy are firmly convinced that the Affirmative of the National Topic offers little more than a subversion of our national interests and our national honor. To them the exercise of forensic skills on the Affirmative of the Recognition of Red China offers too little recompense for the blood of Korea and the Communist hemlock of human freedom.

In other words, if I have not misinterpreted Prof. Westhof, he is willing to have the Affirmative debate as an "exercise of forensic skills" though he sees no merit whatever in the affirmative position. And, since "entire debate programs are seriously endangered" and "some of our most honored debate colleagues and institutions" will not be permitted to engage in a debate program this year, he for one would feel better if the 1954

Resolution were rejected and an alternative adopted.

I quite agree with Prof. Westhof when he describes the present developments with regard to the 1954 Topic as a "mounting forensic crisis," but I cannot subscribe to his view that it is only debate programs which are in jeopardy. The whole question goes beyond the mere academic exercise of forensic skill, however valuable that exercise may be, to the very basic and fundamental question of whether there is a concerted attempt here on the part of certain authorities to abridge freedom of speech and inquiry in our institutions of higher learning. For the refusal to permit college students to debate and to inquire into a debatable topic, however much of a tinder box it may be, can only be regarded, it seems to me, as a breach of this time-honored freedom. In April of this year, Prof. Pepper, in a letter to the *New York Times*, stated: "It is useless to argue (the recognition of Red China), because the subject is no longer in the realm of rationality. It is rather in the realm of abnormal social psychology. *The American mind has been closed.*"¹

The public mind, perhaps. Are we now in the process of abandoning our great citadels of free speech and free inquiry, namely our colleges, to the irrational hysteria which has engulfed so many other areas of our national life? I should like to think not. And yet if we yield to pressures that would have us forego inquiry into subjects which might embarrass existing "national policy," what would we have left? This reason which has been given by the service schools for not debating this year's topic is specious and dangerous, for the same objection could be levelled against all of the five subjects voted on this year by the directors of debate throughout the country as well as against all the national topics which have been debated in the past and conceivably against any debatable

topic. In a word, it could be used to justify the throttling of all inquiry in our schools.

If debate is the lifeblood of democracy, it is surely indispensable to the schools of a democratic society. Thomas Jefferson clearly enunciated this principle when, writing of the University of Virginia, he declared: "This institution will be based on the illimitable freedom of the human mind. For here we are not afraid to follow truth wherever it may lead, nor to tolerate any error so long as reason is left free to combat it."²

Thus, the issues, as I see them, in the present controversy concerning the advisability of debating the 1954 Question may be summarized as follows: If the service schools, and any other for that matter, consider themselves institutions of higher learning, in the democratic sense of the term, that is, institutions where freedom of inquiry exists and is encouraged, then their refusal to debate the 1954 National Topic is inconsistent with their professional principles; if, however, they consider themselves institutions whose primary aim is to indoctrinate the student body, then it is their prerogative to refuse to debate the 1954 Question or to inquire into any other question. Now, if the latter is true, why should institutions who uphold the principle of free inquiry compromise that principle to accommodate those who do not believe in it? I do not deny that institutions have the right to indoctrinate their students, but let us not call such institutions schools of higher learning and above all let us not encourage the latter to abandon their heritage under the pretext of promoting higher learning.

1. The *New York Times*, April 27, 1954.
2. Letter to William Roscoe, December 7, 1820, in Adrienne Koch and William Peden, eds., *The Life and Selected Writings of Thomas Jefferson* (New York, Random House, 1944), p. 702.

ACCESS TO INFORMATION

In 1920 42.5% of American cities had two or more competing daily newspapers. By 1940 the percentage declined to 12.7% and by 1950 to 6.8%.

In 1944 there were 900 standard radio broadcasting stations on the air in the United States. Nearly 600 of them were affiliated with one or more of the four national networks. These 600 affiliated stations utilized 95% of the nighttime broadcasting power of the country; and 53% of their time was devoted to national network programs. Some 82% listen to the radio at least one hour a day.

A recent "reading survey" indicated that about half American adults read no books at all in the year preceding the survey; and about ten per cent of the population did about two-thirds of all the book reading. Some 25% of the book reading was non-fiction.

The Use and Abuse Of Notes

By GORDON F. HOSTETTLER

How to use notes and still be communicative; how to make them a help, not a crutch; a bridge between speaker and audience, not a gulf.

"SHOULD I USE NOTES?"

Here is one of the questions most frequently raised by experienced speakers. Most instructors, the present writer included, reply, "Yes, you may—providing that you use the notes properly so that they are an aid, not a crutch, and so that they do not detract from the communication of the ideas you are presenting." There is not universal agreement on this answer, however. Some authorities maintain that notes are undesirable in most speaking situations.

Bear in mind that we are not here considering the advantages and disadvantages of employing a written manuscript. Speaker's notes are only the simple jottings of words or other symbols designed to recall the main ideas and/or materials the speaker proposes to discuss. We are assuming that the extempore mode of delivery is employed; i.e., that the speaker has in mind a pattern of ideas he desires to communicate and that the language he uses will arise spontaneously as he speaks or will be recalled in occasional phrases from his oral practice sessions. The question we are considering here is: Shall a speaker rely entirely upon his memory for the recall of his ideas or may he properly employ notes to help him in this respect?

Those who hold that notes should rarely be used present a case of considerable weight. They contend that the use of notes (1) interferes with direct communication, (2) tends to encourage poor preparation, and (3) lessens the confidence of the audience in the speaker. These arguments have force. The speaker whose eyes remain glued to his notes can not maintain effective eye contact with his auditors. We have all seen such speakers and we must all agree that such indirectness is a serious barrier to effective communication. Indirectness also results when the notes are waved or flaunted before an audience, especially when they are written on large sheets of paper. Whenever the auditors are acutely aware of any technique of delivery, they are to some extent not

focusing upon the speaker's ideas—and communication is that much diminished.

Undoubtedly some speakers will be tempted to lessen preparatory efforts because they will feel that their notes will get them over rough spots. There may well be a tendency to reduce the number of oral practice sessions, since the speaker may not feel the pressure which complete memory of his sequence of ideas would entail. Again, anyone who has been subjected to a full measure of after-dinner speaking knows that audiences are often bored by and lack confidence in speakers who appear to be completely dependent upon their notes. We all have heard speakers who actually seem unwilling to hazard a declaration *without the inevitable glance at the notes*; and we know that audiences will have but little confidence that such speakers are masters of their subjects.

But are these objections *inherent* in the use of notes? Do notes *have* to be so often consulted that indirect delivery and loss of audience confidence result? *Must* notes be waved and flaunted? Is it *inevitable* that poorer preparation ensues? A little reflection will reveal that the answers must be "no." Notes do not have to be used. And properly used they may be of great benefit to the speaker.

What, then, are the advantages to be gained by using notes? They are three: (1) having notes available often contributes to the poise and self-confidence of the speaker, especially the beginner; (2) using notes may be a real aid to recall, insuring that the speaker will include all of his ideas and include them in the proper order; and (3) employing notes insures the accuracy of facts, statistics, quotations, and other materials essential to the development of the speaker's ideas.

A major, if not the chief, problem confronting most speakers is the attainment of poise, confidence, and self-assurance when facing an audience. It would seem to follow that any technique which may help achieve these results should be utilized, and most speakers are in agreement that having notes with them is a source of comfort and

confidence. Indeed, it frequently happens that the main function of notes is to contribute to poise. Often a speaker, steeped in his subject and thoroughly prepared, upon the completion of his address finds that his notes remain exactly where he put them and that he actually did not refer to them at all.

Ideas are the essence of communication. Frequently oral communication is imperfect because an essential idea is not included or because important ideas are not presented in logical, coherent order. Most of us have had the experience of being more than a little disturbed by the speaker who seems to be concluding but who suddenly remembers a point and interjects, "Oh yes, and another reason I forgot to mention is. . ." Had he used notes, he could have avoided giving such annoyance and could have been more effective.

In similar fashion, notes can help insure the accuracy of speech materials. It seems unreasonable to expect a speaker to memorize many statistics or the exact wording of important quotations. It is perfectly acceptable for a speaker to pick up a card and read such materials to his auditors. To do so often is taken as a sign of thorough research and increases the confidence of the audience in the speaker as a man who knows what he is talking about and who is careful of his facts.

SOME PRACTICAL POINTERS

Here, then, are some practical pointers in regard to the proper and effective use of notes:

(1) Notes should be an aid—not a 'crutch.' Preparation should be so thorough that, if necessary, the speaker could deliver his speech without his notes. Some speakers prefer to practice from their full outline (see any standard text) and to make their platform notes only after the speech is fairly well set.

(2) Notes should be written on 3 x 5 cards.

Such cards fit well in the hand and will not attract too much attention. Never use large sheets of paper. Notes should not be conspicuous; but neither should the speaker try to conceal the fact that he is using them.

(3) Notes should be brief. A word or phrase should serve to recall an entire idea. If more than a word or two is required, it is usually a clear sign that preparation is inadequate. Notes are personal, and practice and experience will indicate for each speaker the sort of words, phrases, or other symbols which are useful and meaningful to him. Notes should include, of course, statistical tables and exact statements of quotations. When using such materials it is entirely permissible to read directly from the cards.

(4) Write or print legibly. Keep wide space between each notation. By so doing a quick glance will enable the speaker to find his place. Use as many cards as may seem advisable; do not try to restrict the notes to one card.

(5) Write only on one side of each card.

(6) Number each card so that they may be kept in order easily. As each card is used it should be placed upon the lectern or table. If the speaker must continue to hold them, he should carefully put them on the bottom of the stack.

(7) Refer to notes only occasionally and only when necessary. Practice using them. The beginning speaker should take particular care that he does not develop the habit of looking at them constantly.

(8) Try to anticipate. As you are finishing one point, glance at your notes to get the next idea in mind. Do not wait until you are in obvious trouble before referring to them.

If the above practical suggestions are followed, a speaker should profit from his notes without becoming a victim of the practices which form the bases for the very real criticisms of their use.

WHO LISTENS TO SPEECHES?

A survey conducted by Angus Campbell and Charles A. Metzner, University of Michigan indicates that only 21% of adults hear as much as *one speech a year* (aside from sermons). "Only about one-seventh of those with less than grade school education attend speeches during the year, compared with nearly half the college people." They conclude: "This channel of communication reaches the fewest people of all the mass media considered in the survey." From Daniel Katz, et. al, editor, *Public Opinion and Propaganda*, Dryden Press, 1954, pp. 779, \$6.25.

PERSONALITY BUILDING

Through Speech Training

By MARY LOUISE MARTIN VON TOBEL

How can individuals be encouraged to grasp the opportunity offered through speech training to develop and release the personality attributes that will help make them effective?

PERHAPS AS AN INSTRUCTOR in Junior or Senior High School you have overheard these snatches of conversation as you went about your pleasant duty of supervising lively teen-agers in cafeteria, the first few weeks of the school term:

"High, Mary! Guess what? I'm taking a speech course this year."

"What! Not you, Sally! I'd die if I had to get up and make a speech before a class."

"Well I've always ducked reciting orally but I simply must get more confidence and poise before I graduate. One of my teachers hinted that a speech class might give me the 'know-how', and improve my personality."

"Wish I had the nerve to tackle a speech class. I'm a dud in conversation even at a party."

Despite the fact that training in Speech and Speaking is available in most schools today, many young people hesitate to grasp the opportunity to acquire the confidence and control they need in speech in order to become well adjusted individuals. Perhaps they, like many an adult, have the false notion that one must possess a talent for speaking in order to do so effectively, and again to quote the teen-ager, they are 'just plain scared' of speech situations. Somewhere, somehow, our young people must be made to realize that good speech is one of the most direct avenues to effective personality.

Our educational philosophy today, points up the challenging premise that, "We are teaching the individual first and the subject matter second." We teachers can stimulate young people, especially in their secondary school career, to get started in speech training by holding out the fascinating goal of personality improvement.

Throughout this discussion of personality training let us dismiss the vague concept of personality as a glamor gadget conveyed *a la* charm

courses or as a task superimposed on the individual in ten easy lessons. Let us rather consider as a true definition of personality, the pattern of the individual expressed through his relationships in the school, community and home.

There is no perfect course designed to fit all types of secondary schools, but a brief review of one born out of trial, heartbreak and toil is here presented. This technique has been used in high school classes for several years with excellent results. It is a two-year course, the first year, two semesters in duration, covering fundamentals of speech; and the second year, also two semesters, providing training in advanced public speaking. Given five days a week, the course carries a five-point credit and is especially designed for junior and senior students in high school. The students elect the course freely—enter with no case histories, no apparent speech defects, no complexes, neuroses, etc.; just as normal high school students desiring to, as they put it, "Improve their speech, gain poise and confidence, and acquire more effective personality."

The teacher acquires a knowledge of the personality of each student through an autobiography, in which the student relates facts about his early life, education and reasons for taking this course. Daily classroom practice in speaking is required throughout the entire course. No one is excused from reciting before the assembled class. If he is unusually sensitive, shy or reserved the instructor unobtrusively moves up to the front of the classroom, interjects a helpful remark, covers a pause or defective phonation, but firmly and pleasantly insists that the speaker try to hold his audience, with the result that although he does so haltingly, he feels good about the whole procedure and even wants to try the experience again.

The subjects used in the first few months are narrative and descriptive in character: for example, "My Hobby," "One Exciting Adventure,"

"My Favorite TV Program," etc. From these simple topics the student moves on to a study of voice control through oral reading, good posture, and clear, distinct enunciation and articulation. The latter part of the year provides time for study of the format of a talk—how to open, develop and close a speech. Emphasis is laid on development of ease and poise through relaxed speaking in a favorable atmosphere. Class members are taught to be courteous listeners as well as acceptable speakers. Besides developing his speaking ability, this basic course should train him to be constructive more often than destructive in his criticism of his classmates.

The advanced public speaking students, having overcome their initial fear of an audience, are now ready for the next important phase of personality training through speech: the presentation of their ideas before discussion groups. This is accomplished through forum, round-table and panel discussions.

Practice is also held in job interviews, and sales and demonstration talks in the classroom.

The highlight of personality training in the advanced course is the 'Club Class'. The class becomes a club. It acquires a name, ("We, the Speakers", "The Golden Tones"), and officers are elected by a vote of the students. Two regular class sessions are scheduled as club meetings each month. The programs are made up of talks, skits and discussions, planned by the program chairman with a minimum of aid from the instructor. At the opening of the class the club president takes over the instructor's desk, the secretary reads the minutes of the preceding meeting and the entire program is presented by the students themselves. Occasionally the students invite members of English or Social Studies classes as guests, in order to provide a realistic audience. Some of these meetings are held in the auditorium in order to afford real platform training. It is a surprising fact that some of the most timid students learn to enjoy the thrill of appearing on the platform before a larger audience and expand hidden talents they possessed to the surprise of themselves and their classmates.

The close coordination between speech training and personality development may be illustrated through this case history.

Paul C----- was a shy, attractive junior whom the instructor met in his Fundamentals of P.S. class. It was evident that he stuttered badly—but he wanted to try to improve. A glance through

his autobiography gave the instructor the idea of calling his mother. This was the background picture:

Paul had stuttered or, as his mother stated, 'spoken strangely' since childhood. Several doctors who examined him declared that the boy was physically well and would outgrow his speech defects, but his severe stutter belied their prophecy. Worse perhaps than his stutter was the apparent change in his personality habits. He did not care to associate with his companions—they laughed at his speech so he remained home. He refused to go out to social gatherings unless accompanied by his parents. No one seemed to know just why he dared to join the Fundamentals of Speech class, but he did.

Though he worried over his stuttering, he was more concerned over his inability to make friends among his classmates. On one of his rare absent days, the instructor explained his difficulty to the class, asking them to be patient, their best way of helping him. Concert reading in prose and poetry and enunciation drills were his delight. He could stumble unnoticed but he could participate, hear his own voice, and gain confidence in himself. He never failed to write out his talks or to attempt to recite them.

In his senior year a new class was added to the speech course, a speech correction clinic group. Paul was eligible but was unwilling to give up his class in Advanced P.S. "Could he take both?" Permission was granted. In speech correction, a small class of six, the teacher had grouped three stutterers and three lisps. In these groups individual instruction could be given to each student. The individual's problem was discussed with him, with emphasis on admitting one's handicap as the first step in solving the problem. Remedial measures were outlined and speaking before the group was a challenge all these students met willingly.

At this time Paul's personality seemed to be undergoing a change. From a shy lad he became a friendly, helpful fellow, the inspiration of the group. To the surprise of the instructor and the group he declared that his first year in Fundamentals of Speech had taken away his fear of speaking before an audience. When he no longer feared speaking he found it easier to control his stuttering and to make more friends. On inquiry it was learned that his teacher in English and Social Studies also noticed his willingness to vol-

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DEVELOPING RAPPORT

in the Public Speaking Classroom

By RALPH N. SCHMIDT

Detailed suggestions based on experience in developing a classroom atmosphere that will encourage the giving of real speeches to a real audience, rather than the "recitation" of an assignment.

IN NO CLASSROOM IS RAPPORT MORE IMPORTANT than in public speaking. The progress made by each individual in the class depends upon the *rapport* of the class as a whole and of each individual within that class. Other classes are predominantly teacher-textbook-laboratory oriented. The public speaking classroom must be student-student as well as teacher-student-textbook oriented.

In most classrooms the first few days are not particularly important (witness the policy in some colleges and universities of meeting the class on the first day, indicating the textbooks and supplies to be purchased, making the assignment for the next session, and dismissing the students). In the public speaking classroom the first day is most important to the future well-being of the students and their development in understanding and proficiency. It is during this first period that the attitude toward the course will be established. A poor or an unfavorable attitude will almost certainly insure a mediocre group achievement.

What can be done in that first class session to establish *rapport*? How can the proper attitude toward the course be engendered? How can the students be made to feel confident and enthusiastic instead of fearful and apathetic? What *can* be done other than making the assignment?

Actually, the establishment of *rapport* begins *before* the first class session, before the instructor has any knowledge of who is to be enrolled. It begins with the proper arrangement of the seats in the room in which the class is to meet. The most desirable arrangement is one which permits easy access to the platform, one which permits the instructor maximum observation of both the speaker and the listener, and one in which the opening of the door by tardy pupils will cause no disturbance.

The important thing is to have a room which encourages the student to visualize himself as a

speaker before an audience, rather than a pupil reciting to a class.

Whenever possible, the instructor should be seated at the rear and side of the room on an elevated platform which raises him above the head level of the audience.* It is best for him to have a table on this small platform so that he may write criticisms freely and easily. On the wall to his rear, clearly seen by the speaker, should be a large wall clock with a sweep-second hand. This will make it possible for the speakers, as they become accustomed to the speaking situation, to keep track of the passage of time and to adapt themselves and their messages to it.

The advantage to the instructor of an elevated position is three-fold: it enables him to observe every action of the speaker on the platform, it enables him fully to note audience reaction, and it makes it possible for him to write pertinent and frank comments without the danger of having students seated at his sides and back paying attention to his writing instead of to the speaker. The advantage to the student speaker is also three-fold: he knows that the instructor has an unobstructed view and can, therefore, make suggestions and give advice on the basis of complete observation; he knows that the instructor is aware of any and all audience reactions (and that the members of the audience are likewise aware of that fact); and he knows that only he and the instructor, and whomever else he wishes to show them to, know what comments were written on his criticism sheet and what grade he received.

FIRST CLASS MEETING

With these advance preparations made, the problem of what to do in the first meeting of the

* With this and with some later observations your Editor disagrees. He prefers the instructor to be physically less conspicuous; he places more emphasis on good diction; and he is doubtful of the utility of some of the other explicit directions. What do other readers think? Any arguments?

class deserves consideration. Of major importance is the establishment of the philosophy of the course. There can be no *rapport* unless and until common ground has been established between the instructor and the students. They have a right to know exactly what you expect of them, what you hope to accomplish during the term. Tell them. Be fair and frank, and pull no punches. Make it clear that you do not intend to develop orators, that you are not anticipating glowing phrases and masterful statements. Emphasize to them that your concern is with the communication of ideas, that you are willing to "go along with" whatever vehicle of communication the student possesses at the start of the course—as long as he is communicating to his classmates. Be honest in pointing out that the better the vehicle of expression, the better will be the chances of communication—but that communication is *the* end sought. Indicate that you will help each student to improve his vehicle of communication *after* he has demonstrated progress in communication. Make it clear that you do not intend to penalize a student for faulty grammar or mispronunciation or colloquial speech—unless it interferes with communication.

It is essential that students in a beginning class in public speaking realize that public speaking is not just "oral English". It is also essential that students understand that you want the best English of which they are capable, although you will not insist on better English than they already possess. Let them know that you consider it to be the purpose of your course to help them to use the vehicle they now possess to the best advantage and that the improvement of that vehicle will be an indirect, but sure and painless concomitant of the course.

With common ground established, *rapport* can be further developed by use of an old educational technique—seating the class in alphabetical order. It is necessary to make clear to the students the usefulness to them and to the instructor of this method of seating: it makes it easier for students to become acquainted. If it is known that the seating is alphabetical, each student has a clue to the identity of the student seated on either side of him. In addition, alphabetical seating makes it easier for the instructor to take the roll (thus saving time) and permits him, also, to associate names and faces much more rapidly.

After explaining the advantages of alphabetical seating, the instructor may put away the roll book, stand before the alphabetically seated class, and

call each of the students in the class by the proper surname. If a particular name eludes the instructor, he merely skips that student and indicates the name of the next student. Then, by a process of deduction, he arrives at the name of the student "passed over". Johnson, for example, is arrived at when the name of the person to the right is Jackson and Keller is the name at the left. If the instructor should be unable to recall only one or two names, students will be amazed and convinced. One or two "misses" out of a class of eighteen to twenty students will seem to be a phenomenal feat of memory. The "clincher" and very effective *rapport* builder, of course, is to send a student to the platform to repeat the instructor's performance. This always provides a lot of fun—and the average student is able to recall the names of over half of the class without assistance and well over three-quarters with "leading questions" and statements.

USE OF SYLLABUS

Now that the students are in good frame of mind, ask them to fill out a "class information sheet". Provide space for the name of the student, his address while attending school, telephone number at that address, area in which majoring, year in school, activities, place of employment (if any). Explanation of the purpose of the sheet helps to elicit complete and accurate information. Indicate that the information given will be assembled on a master ditto stencil and duplicated so that each member of the class will have a copy. Point out that this will enable members of the class to get in touch with each other freely about textbook and written assignments and permit them to arrange, in the face of a sudden emergency, for one of their classmates to take their speaking assignment—thus avoiding the penalty for not speaking or for being absent on a day when scheduled to speak. Show how valuable it is in preparing an audience-centered speech to know as much as possible about the members of the audience. Incidentally, this device does reduce the number of "make-up" speeches and the amount of time needed to complete a round of speeches. As such, it is a real help to the instructor as well as to the student. It increases *rapport* by making it possible for a student to meet emergencies with equanimity instead of frustration.

A fourth means of establishing *rapport* in the public speaking classroom is to give each student a tentative course outline. Included in this list of assignments should be the title of the text, name

of the author, time of the class meetings, and the name of the instructor. This is a help to the student in trying to remember, after a busy first day, all that has been said by a number of instructors for a number of courses. As soon as each student has received his copy and has had time to examine it cursorily, the assignment for the next meeting of the class should be explained.

The assignment itself should be one designed to build *rapport*: a two minute auto-biographical (or introductory) speech, plus a short reading assignment in the textbook. The purpose of the speaking assignment should be emphasized—to make the students better acquainted with one another, more understanding of their problems and personalities. Ask them to “tell us the things about yourself which you would like to know if you were a member of the audience and listening to yourself speak, the kinds of things which will help others in communicating with you when they develop speeches of instruction, etc.”

At the second meeting of the class there may be some new faces due to late registrations and some of the faces present at the previous session may be missing due to shifts in schedule. It will be necessary therefore, to readjust the alphabetical seating to conform to the new faces in the enrollment. After making the shifts in seating, call each student by name. This helps both new and original registrants in the class to associate names, faces, and seating order. Then call upon one of the original class members to do the same thing. This serves to fix in the memories of all students the names of their classmates because they follow empathically the trials and successes of the one singled out.

You are now ready for the speeches assigned for this day. Explain that every student will be called upon to give his two-minute speech, including the late registrants—who will be called upon toward the end of the period in order to give them time to assemble their thoughts. Explain that you will give signals to let the speaker know how long he has talked: one finger for one minute, two fingers for two minute, the fist for three minutes.

Ask the class to applaud at the end of each speech and give the following reasons for such applause: (1) it was a good talk. You enjoyed it. (2) You learned nothing from it. But you *are* glad it is over. (3) You aren't sure about the speech, but are sure that you liked what you saw (especially if the speaker was good-looking.)

Be sure to cover ALL the assigned speeches. If

your class period is not long enough to do so without holding the class two or three minutes overtime, hold it over. If even that won't do, divide the class in half and indicate in advance which half will not speak until the next meeting. Don't forget to call attention of the class to the next assignment on their tentative class schedule. Be sure all new registrants receive a copy of it and that they, too, fill out a “class information sheet”.

CRITICISM OF SPEECHES

By this time *rapport* will exist between the instructor and the class. However, it won't *stay* without further effort! There are some further things which can be done by the instructor. In preparing for the first day on which speeches of four or five minutes in length are to be presented, announce that you will criticize each speech, but that you will not assign a grade to any speech. Explain your reason: you have not yet had sufficient time or opportunity to teach them much of what they need to know about speaking. Therefore, they shouldn't be graded on something which they have not been taught how to do. Criticism will help them to understand what they are doing that shouldn't be done and what they are doing that should continue to be done. Point out that students who already know how to make speeches shouldn't be in the class. Indicate that you will grade the speeches just as soon as you have taught them enough so that you *can* grade them on their accomplishments and proficiency in the areas on which they have had instruction.

Set up the groups which are to speak in advance. Keep these groups constant. Let each student know which group he is in. Alternate the order of the speaking of the groups from assignment to assignment and of the speaking order within each of the groups. Make provision for the shifting of students from one group to another for their convenience, when such a shift is mutually agreeable to those concerned. Always make it possible for a student who does not wish to speak on a given day to provide a substitute to take his place from among those who are not scheduled to speak on that day—and then take that substitute's place when his day to speak arrives.

Introduce the student speakers in such a way that their thoughts are occupied with your introduction of them and not concentrated on themselves. This sets the stage for direct communicative speaking rather than indirect “recitations.” When the speaker concludes, criticize the speech and the speaker in terms of strengths rather than

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FUNCTIONALIZING

Human Relations in Business

By RAYMOND H. BARNARD

A parcel of specific suggestions for improving human relations in business or industry, by an Associate Professor of Speech in the University of Denver.

TO MARK TWAIN IS ASCRIBED THE STATEMENT that everybody talks about the weather but no one ever does anything about it. There has been a great deal of talk about human relations in industry; but there are some people who are doing more than just talking about it. It is the purpose of this article to discuss one general method by which human relations can be "functionalized"—if such a coining of a word may be permitted—largely through methods of group discussion and conference.

The whole man is rightly the consideration of industry, particularly as far as the employees are concerned (although the customers should be included, too). Here we will be most concerned with the executives—especially the junior executives in their relation to the employee.

There are two sides—at least two—in any situation. The executive should take the initiative himself to determine matters of fairness and justice in dealing with employees. This involves knowing the time and place and the willingness to accept responsibility for his mistakes. Treat employees as individuals; recognize individual differences; know something of their family life, their hobbies and interests. Call men into the office occasionally and learn their hopes and ambitions. The employee wants to feel that his employer has confidence in him. It is not the object to produce "yes-men", but men of forthright thought and vigor in expressing ideas and points of view.

METHODS OF CRITICISM

When criticism is to be given, it should not be done harshly; the object is to benefit and strengthen the employee for future contingencies. The criticism should not be personal and certainly should not be given in public. Use humor if possible, for "many a truth is told in jest." Experiments have indicated that a praised group makes more progress than one that is reproofed or ignored. Make criticism specific: not, "use your

head"; nor, "Keep your eyes open." Enthusiasm and confidence in the boss radiates to the employee. Do not argue. Treatment of the individual reflects in the morale of the entire group. Many employees shun responsibility because they may feel that they do not measure up to their job and might lose it. If there is confusion of responsibility and too many bosses, or if the "wrong channels" are used, the employee lacks the will to go ahead. Assure a man that he is being given a difficult assignment because of your confidence that he can do it.

Industry and government know how to use men and machines, but still may bog down if employees are not satisfied, secure in their jobs, and co-operative. They are individuals with human problems, not serial numbers. An employee is not a mechanism, but a living organism—a human being. He does not work by himself, but with others. His feelings can be hurt and he needs respect.

In all this, communication plays a major role—the intent behind the communication and the actual language and facial expression and manner used. Problems of productivity are bound in with human problems. Through communication, too, management becomes aware of its problems and the possibilities of its work force, and knows how to act. It may be said that good communication is the foundation of good management.

Communication can go up, down, or both ways. Question-and-answer boxes, suggestion systems, informal grievances to a supervisor, etc. are examples of communication going up. Quarterly letters on the status of the company, trips around the plant for each new worker, a monthly magazine (particularly personal items, as for wives) are evidences of machinery going up. Going both ways: open houses, exhibits of products, etc.

The employee wants to know if the boss is the key figure and what his attitude is. Participation,

to be good, must be organic within the company—made up of the warp and woof of company policy; the boss must demonstrate that he wants the opinions of subordinates.

Clear directions is one phase of communication that makes for good human relations. If there is confusion, the employee proceeds cautiously and uncertainly, makes mistakes, and feels hurt if reprimanded. The German general Von Moltke's admonition: "If an order can be misunderstood, it will be misunderstood," is a case in point. In giving directions, too many ideas should not be presented at one time, but a step-by-step, one-action-at-a-time procedure.

INTERESTS OF EMPLOYEES

Studies have indicated that employees are not interested in the economics of a company except as it affects them; not in profit systems unless it means profit-sharing; not in business associations or productivity except as they affect their work; nor in nation-wide advertising. Various motives, of course, are at work, not just one, and will differ for different individuals. Employees desire friendly co-workers, a fair supervisor, self-determination, ready access to management, and no undue supervision. A composite of studies and questionnaires shows that job-security is uppermost in the minds of employees—they fear layoffs, or job loss, or demotion. Rate of pay is secondary and rarely a first choice. They want a chance to get ahead, a square boss, doing the job one prefers, getting credit for a good job and being praised for it. The employee has a strong desire to know how he is doing; he wants a sense of *belonging, of feeling "at home" in the organization.* He likes to be given an opportunity to express himself without penalty, freedom to seek advice, social approval, popularity with his fellow-workers, reasons for changes in work (if any). He wishes to know the criteria for promotion and success, the bases for loyalty, the skills needed, programs for self-improvement, the future, pensions, retirement, hospitalization, how the product is made, who buys, and his part in the whole process of manufacture (relation of parts to the whole), working conditions, plant operation, etc.

Those supervisors who get the best work done, apparently, place less emphasis on production as a goal and encourage more employee participation, recognize individual employees positively, and want employees to make their own decisions. Executives, too, we might add, want some of the

above things, especially recognition and power, but from different sources, of course.

The most important fact in an adult person's life is the type of work that occupies most of his waking hours. Around that will revolve his standard of living, associates, leisure time activities, etc. He will talk more about his job than any other aspect of his living, for it is that with which he is most familiar; the greatest object of his loyalty. One's heart must be in one's work—not letting the job dominate him. What are his training, education, and qualifications? Is he on the way up? What adaptability and versatility has he? Can he follow instructions? Public commendation and approval by the boss are more powerful than public or private reprimand or ridicule in getting improvement in results. The effect of praise and blame brings up the problem of when, where, and how to do it. If an employee is drinking or gambling, if his work is slow or careless, he deserves some talking-to; also, if a request for a raise must be turned down—but all tactfully.

In 1916 Gilchrist gave the Courtis English Test to two groups of college students. One group was told that they did worse than the average 12-year-old. The other group was praised and told that they did exceptionally well. Both then took the test again: the praised group gained 80%; the re-proved group did not gain.

WORK IS PART OF LIFE

Some of the motivations of men must be determined on the job as well as through interviews and questionnaires. Fear of loss of one's job or earning power through illness or old age or accident, and fear of a penniless old age lead one to say that mutual trust and confidence and the removal of fears, are the concern of age. Criticism by others is a human relations problem, as are likewise a change of work, worry, fear of what the boss thinks of them and wants, self-consciousness, over-verbalization, quarrelsomeness, and over-emotionalism. Workers lack and need self-confidence, concentration, initiative, sociability, originality, energy, and faith in and sympathy for others. They also show inabilities in speaking in public or to the boss, meeting strangers, arguing a point, knowing how to use time and energy, control of temper, completing something that had been started, assuming responsibility.

Incentives which should be recognized by administrators are: promotion, credit and reward for extra service and ideas, etc. The timid should be encouraged and workers assigned to a job accord-

ing to ability and adaptability. Studies indicate that a group that has knowledge of its progress works harder than a similar group not so informed.

DEVELOPING INTEREST

One of the great problems in modern industry is assemblyline specialization of small tasks which produce fatigue and boredom, and result in decreased output and inaccuracies and woolgathering. For operatives and those tasks involving repetitive acts, breaks help considerably; the output in the afternoon after lunch picks up. For mental workers, working too long on one problem produces errors in memory, mind-wandering, lack of concentration, and poor assimilation and evaluation. A change of occupation during the day and a variety of tasks help nullify fatigue and boredom for all classes of workers. Group or individual rivalry and contests call forth pride and group consciousness. Sports and games do the same. Titles and status ennoble the job in the eyes of the worker. He learns a feeling of identification with one department which may become too specialized unless related to the total design. Improvement in working conditions—light, space, equipment, ventilation, color on the walls, pictures—give the right physiological and psychological effect. Establishing a rhythm of work is vital, for rhythm is inherent in us.

Since oral communication is more direct than written, it makes a more lasting impression. Such means of oral communication as role-playing and socio-drama, PA systems, interviewing and counseling, collective bargaining, the grapevine, radio, recordings, and the telephone are good training devices and are indispensable.

It is a big job and largely one of communication. Just to enumerate what should be discussed: how to convince a worker that his wages are based upon productivity; how to be firm and yet keep good will; how to be intimate and take employees into your confidence without sacrificing "discipline"; dealing with cliques and petty jealousies and curbing dissention; coping with the "griper"; checking up on employees without being a "snooper"; absenteeism and tardiness; how to deal with the "know-it-all"; how far to trust employees; how to introduce new methods; how to deal with the liar and the alcoholic.

In most of the above, the discussion or group method is quite valuable; in others of a personal nature, such as alcoholism, the liar, the overly-

important person, etc., industrial counseling is in order.

Benjamin Franklin's technique as explained in his *Autobiography* is still a very good one, especially in industrial communication. Franklin found that he was making enemies and that people would not co-operate with him because he was always so dogmatic and sure that he was right in his statements. Instead of using such terms as "absolutely," "positively," "certainly," "undoubtedly," and "You're wrong", he learned to be more tactful and diplomatic, saying instead: "It appears to me—", "I should think so and so might be true," "I imagine it to be so—", "If I am not mistaken—", etc. He found that instead of people's "getting their backs up," he effected compromise and even agreements.

FRANKLIN'S TECHNIQUE

The boss does not need to be curt to employees and "put them in their place." He should not discourage initiative and new ideas by being unappreciative or failing to give a hearing. He should avoid scolding and complaining; he should not constantly remind the employee how well off he is and how much better he is here than elsewhere. He should not be too exacting, expecting too much.

It does not hurt to say "Please," nor to talk informally with the men as you walk through the plant, conversing with watchmen and clerks as well as with supervisors. "Executives should be seen as well as heard." In office conferences, the desk is a symbol of authority. You as an executive are used to the office; an employee who comes in is not, and is inclined to feel ill at ease. Sit down with him in a chair. Make him feel at home. Arrange for a junior executive to take a new man to lunch to explain his duties—break him in. Use some humor. Later, call him by his first name or nickname. Ask him friendly questions about his home, wife, children, recreation, sports, and hobbies.

The general method we are advocating here is "discussion," including interviewing, counseling, buzz groups and conferences. One to three meetings a week can be held, according to the structure and emergency nature of the problems. Chairmanships should be rotated. When the group has progressed to the point of solutions, each member of the group may be asked to bring in a solution framed in a proposition or statement. According to a method advocated by Major Charles Estes of the U.S. Conciliation Service in labor

disputes, each member of the group (from both management and labor) reads aloud a paragraph of the proposed agreement and then analyzes it for meaning. Thus, bit by bit, the group comes to have deeper appreciation of all the meanings and a better appreciation of each other and what he stands for and why he believes as he does.

THE CONFERENCE METHOD

The conference method makes people think together and co-operate with others. It does not mean, necessarily, giving up one's ideas if better ones are not forthcoming. It does develop, rather, insight into a problem beyond the ken of one man alone. If he becomes "involved," there is his feeling that he has thought up the group solution himself. He is active; he is a participant; his thinking is organic with that of the whole; he becomes a good listener; he has a chance to express himself and to get something "off his chest," or to let off steam, if that is called for. Thus, discussion is both intellectual solvent and an emotional release.

In a training group, some of these sessions can be luncheon meetings. It helps morale, pays off in good business methodologies, whether as "management cabinets" or as "consultative supervision." Good human relations are established in these meetings. Some may seem minor, such as remembering the names and faces of others, but they are basic.

The methods of parliamentary procedure do not apply in group discussion. One weakness is that members are eager to put a matter to a vote before the group has defined its problem or adequately discussed the inherent issues. Group discussion encourages individual participation and the exploration of possibilities which parliamentary procedure tends to minimize. Furthermore, for free and open discussion, a chairman who is dominant and authoritarian is out of the question; whereas this can easily happen under parliamentary rules, the parliamentary method is too rigid for small groups. Few people understand the complexities of parliamentary rules, which may be time-consuming, with too many formal motions.

A warm and friendly atmosphere is conducive to better communication, group interaction in a permissive atmosphere, and good decisions. Wise decisions cannot be made until the nature of the problem and its underlying factors are made clear, workable definitions set up, and the necessary information brought forward. Several solutions need to be considered, not a vote on one.

Consensus is better than a vote in the early stages of discussion until the thought of the group has crystallized. The problem in group discussion is not chiefly one of preserving order, but of stimulating group thinking, coming to a decision, planning, and evaluating results.

LEADERSHIP

The group must accept and have faith in its leader; he must merit its leadership through defining the group's purposes and objectives, assigning responsibilities, making plans, and utilizing human resources of co-operation. A leader should have a certain degree of force (but not for the purpose of domination), energy, confidence, reassurance, enthusiasm, optimism, tact, frankness, firmness, and a pleasant personality, ability to get along with others, consideration for others, responsibility, and sincerity. One important matter is that a leader who is good for one group may not be good for another. He should have some identification with the group and know its members. He needs to be able to have mental quickness and skill in speech.

We have said that leadership should change—not only from time to time, but within one session. The member who is especially and peculiarly fitted by knowledge and experience on one topic may assume the leadership for a short time; then it may pass to some one else. It is no fixed thing, but emerges out of the group experience. Constant communication within the group is necessary.

In a group, a planning committee which prepares a tentative agenda is vital in a continuing organization, as in industry. There should be no formal or rigid or "dead" following of an agenda. An in-service training program can be formed, or a leader study group or council. In a group meeting, the leader should occasionally summarize both goals and the progress of the discussion in relation to those goals, and know what the right procedure for that group and that problem may be. Meetings should be planned in terms of the group's interests and expectations. Voice and diction and manner and attitude are also important.

METHOD OF QUAKERS

One of the shining examples of group dynamics working itself out by consensus rather than by vote is the Quakers. (See chapter in Stuart Chase's *Roads to Agreement*, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950, on "The sense of the meeting.") Parliamentary procedure assumes that there

is a diversity of opinion; the Quaker method, that there is a common purpose. It rejects barter and compromise in preference to the rightness and wrongness of the measure. A vote leads to grudges and a sense of victory or defeat, and creates a belligerent minority. The order, properly, is not to discuss and vote, but to discuss and arrive at understanding and, possibly, agreement.

"Reading a query" is the opening step in the Quaker procedure, which is usually done by the chairman or "clerk of the meeting." Points of view are expressed by whoever wishes to, but just once per person on a point. Provocative language, repetition, etc. are out of place. If the discussion becomes heated, the clerk calls for a period of silence and contemplation until members have cooled off. Consensus takes the place of a vote—"presenting a minute," as it is called.

This "sense of the meeting" stands unless someone challenges it. Then the clerk may postpone a decision or appoint a committee to look into it. Much depends upon the skill and character of the clerk. He must be intelligent, sensitive to varying points of view; and above all, not domineering. Much depends, too, upon the character of the participants—their good will, frankness, sincerity, and spirit of co-operation. They must believe in agreement.

Even with serious differences, the Quaker method can be made to work, as witness its use in the Acheson-Lilienthal atomic energy report, the LaFollette-Monroney committee on the organization of Congress, ex-President Truman's Water Resources Policy report, the International Monetary Fund, the Committee on Economic Development, and the National Conference on Aging.

The method works best for small groups, but even with large ones at times. There needs to be suppression of factional, sectional, partisan, and personal interests. The 'resistor,' the uncompromising, the obstinate, the special pleader do not fit into such a system. Small groups in the UN,

such as the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council and smaller bodies have used the method very well. Disputes in the Assembly are often handed over to arbitrators, conciliation commissions, and mediators.

JOB OF CHAIRMEN

Very often in present-day meetings, resource people are appointed who can answer questions of information that are bothering the group; also, evaluators who report back to the group on the success and progress of the discussion and on points suggested for improvement. Films and demonstrations help a great deal on the information side. "Buzz groups" of six to eight may report back their findings on some sub-point to the whole group for consideration.

The chairman or leader, in opening a meeting, needs to state the purpose of the meeting, introduce the members to each other or to the audience (if so set up); call attention to the problem—its definition and scope; draw out possible causes and effects; make transitions and summaries (not too many—nor after every single point) in terms of goals. He needs to use tact in handling difficult members, trying to determine reasons for hostility, indifference, antagonism, or cantankerousness; or listen to gripes. He needs to keep a discussion within bounds and not make it too long, for people become tired and reach the saturation point. A good outline saves digression and time. Committees should be "patted on the back" and encouraged. The pace should be fast enough so that members do not become bored. Groups need to feel a sense of responsibility, or worthwhileness of their efforts, to be active and creative, and to learn that decisions and actions are broadened by knowledge, insight, and imagination of many different people. A participant is more interested and concerned if he has had a part in the deliberations and solutions and the results of decision-making. Apathy and indifference result when there is a lack of participation. Finally, participation enables the member to see the work as a whole, and his part in it.

The Subscription year for TODAY'S SPEECH is January to January. Please send your renewal check for \$1.50 to Dr. Milton J. Wiksell, Department of Speech and Theatre, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. (SAES members subscribe through Executive Secretary Paul D. Holtzman, on an April to April basis).

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ORAL INTERPRETATION

and a Philosophy of Liberal Education

By GERALD E. MARSH

*A discussion of educational values as old as Homer and Socrates—
as old as the Song of Solomon and the Book of Psalms.*

I AM ENTHUSIASTIC ABOUT THE TOPIC "Interpretation and a Philosophy of Liberal Education" because I believe it to be important. I suppose there are many definitions of both Interpretation and Liberal Education, but I am sure that I learned none of them while I was an undergraduate.

College seemed a place where one took a number of completely unrelated courses, many of which were about as inspiring as most television programs, and apparently of as little value. Interpretation consisted of a series of recitations of selections such as "Jack, I hear you've gone and done it" and "Young Lochinvar has come out of the West." Such material was supposed to be read with great gusto and with considerable running to and fro before the audience. This was supposed to free the declaimer from any inhibitions from which he might have been suffering and to loosen up the audience.

Whatever the effect may have been on the performer, and sometimes it was devastating, it usually did have a loosening effect on the audience, including the instructor, and the whole assemblage would usually collapse in the aisles from laughter. One unfortunate reader, overcome by the uproar one day, turned tail and ran, never to appear in class again. The course was usually topped off by the reading of Poe's "Bells" and "The Revolutionary Rising" of Thomas Buchanan Reed. Not one single poem or prose passage of real literary worth was ever used.

The student came out of the course, if he survived it at all, with a little skill in reading, if complete and wild abandon in declaiming could be called such, and with a crude recognition of the importance of attitude in a selection even though grasped at the most elementary level. Such a course, conceivably, might have a place somewhere, although for the moment I would be pressed to name exactly where, but it was hardly calculated to give a freshman or sophomore much of an insight into poetry or prose of a high order, nor to give him the slightest idea of what should

go on in courses in a Liberal Arts college.

Perhaps in those leisurely days it did not matter so much whether we knew what a Liberal Arts College was for or what we were supposed to get out of a course in one of them, but it does matter today and it matters terribly. However, some people are convinced that had it mattered more *then* to more of us, the desperate urgency today might not now be so great. For it was *then* that H. G. Wells said, "It is a race between education and catastrophe," a statement which he later amended by adding, "I was wrong for catastrophe is upon us and education hasn't even started yet." Those were the days of the big boom, when we all thought that by staying in college for four years and taking courses in economics we would emerge ready to deal in stocks and bonds, playing the stock market, and make our fortunes. And if we had to dash out on a platform with Young Lochinvar's horse in some silly course in Interpretation we could weather it.

And so we graduated from college with our precious economic doctrine as preached by Richard T. Ely, and a smattering of some other courses now completely forgotten through the mists of time, and we had not been moved by a single great thought—nor were we excited by a real artistic experience.

In retrospect it is interesting to look back on what we choose to call the learning process and examine the various stages in it. My beginning was quite retarded; most of what I think I know about a liberal education came after college was finished, during graduate schools of one sort and another and during thirty odd years of teaching. My first evolutionary stage was to join up with the cult of science worshippers. The Gods of Education became Thomas Huxley, Bertrand Russell, Alfred Whitehead and Karl Pearson. There was only one way to view the world and that was with the scientific outlook, "the kernel of which was a refusal to interpret the Universe in terms of our own desires." All problems were to be approached with a cold objective methodological scepticism.

The text for one course in analytical reasoning offered in speech was taken from John Stuart Mill: "To question all things; — never to turn away from any difficulty; to accept no doctrine either from ourselves or from other people without a rigid scrutiny by negative criticism; letting no fallacy, or incoherence, or confusion of thought, step by unperceived; above all, to insist upon having the meaning of a word clearly understood before using it, and the meaning of a proposition before assenting to it." The course was successful in a way for it was recommended to his students by the Dean of the College of Chemistry.

With the enthusiasm of a crusader I sought to apply scientific method to all problems in conformity with the beliefs of Karl Pearson and Bertrand Russell. The formula was very simple: all we had to do, once we had achieved a healthy intellectual scepticism, and had mastered the laws of straight thinking through the use of logic, was to substitute the desire to know for the million and one other desires to which we are heir. After considerable frostbite from trying to dwell in the icy polar regions of logic and objectivity it gradually dawned on me that, although the scientific outlook was one of the goals of the educated person, something was wrong and something was missing.

The conviction that something was wrong came from observing Nobel Prize-winning scientists, sitting around committee tables, violating with complete abandon the beautiful precepts laid down so carefully by Mill. Outside their own field they were interpreting the world in terms of their own desires and prejudices as much as the rest of us. Secondly, I became convinced that beyond the miraculous material discoveries they were making, they were as confused and bewildered by much of what they had found as the rest of us. They had succeeded in unstopping the bottle but they hadn't the slightest idea what to do with the Genii. Only in the last decade have they started whimpering about the moral responsibility of the scientist. The realization that knowledge alone neither makes the educated man nor necessarily solves any of his major problems, is gradually coming to some of them belatedly.

It is almost the perfect irony that one of our greatest universities has chosen this year as a theme for the celebration of its anniversary "The Right to Knowledge and the free use thereof." As atomic dust from the Coral Islands of the Pacific and the dark steppes of Siberia settles over the lands of the earth one may wonder if the

theme shouldn't have been, "In this dread hour give to us wisdom of Solomon."

The third thing that was wrong in placing all our trust in scientific method was the most extraordinary difficulty in using it beyond those fields that were strictly measureable. Some of us believed that a new day would dawn once scientific method was applied to social problems. Our despair today comes from a realization that in this area science has not helped us a whit. We still pull our major premises out of the air as we wish and build great treatises on them. Where do we get the major premises? As Max Radin says: "They lie about us in motley abundance," and we select the ones we desire whether we be college debaters, labor leaders, Supreme Court Justices or Academicians.

With the acute realization that most of what has passed for reflective thinking has been nothing more than a rationalization of our hopes and desires and prejudices, we have become confused and disillusioned. Irwin Edman, in his challenging little book, *Candle In the Dark*, written during World War II, says: "Men in the nineteenth century were sad that they could no longer believe in God. They are more deeply saddened now by the fact that they can no longer believe in man. What, in the face of such overwhelming collapse, is there for us to escape to or to cling to or to lean on? . . . What can we do to keep sane in a world gone mad?"

Irwin Edman's despair and gloom could be multiplied many times in the writings of other prominent men, such as Hutchins, MacLeish, Bertrand Russell and Albert J. Nock. In the writing of most of them there runs the accusation, or at least the implication, that there has been an over-emphasis on materialism; and that the spirit of man has been crippled in such a climate. Each one has his cure — so perhaps I may be forgiven for proposing one too.

We must fight with all the courage we can muster to restore to education values that are as old as Homer and Sophocles and Aristotle and Socrates. They are as old as the Song of Solomon and the Book of Psalms. Edman states the case admirably and clearly: "The crucial state of civilization at the present juncture has simply dramatized on a colossal scale the anxiety and indecision that cloud even the most auspicious turns of individual lives or the lives of nation and cultures. Life is always at some turning point. Great poets and seers have taught us in the past, they may

teach us now, *to behold the view*. . . We shall be enabled to behold what men have always beheld when they have raised their eyes to see: the serene unending recurrences in nature, the eternal form and types of happiness and suffering, of cruelty and wisdom, of barbarism and saintliness that perpetually return to the human scene."

Where better can we behold the view than in our courses in Interpretation, where we have an opportunity to study and read for mutual class benefit the greatest poets and seers of all time: from the Lamentations of Job and the great tragedies of Sophocles to the startling paradoxes of John Donne and the shy defiance of Emily Dickinson; from the exalted rhapsodies of the Song of Songs to the stern tenderness of Robert Frost?

Here, in the oral sharing of the best that has

been written through the ages, we can make the humanities come alive. We can make them significant in their relation to human life — the lives of John and Susie Co-ed — the lives of Malenkov and Churchill and Nehru and Albert Schweitzer. Here, with an imaginative, sensitive and intelligent teacher, with a genuine literary background, the student cannot help but have his awareness of human life — its comedies and tragedies — broadened and deepened. Can there be a more important or more legitimate function within a college of Letters and Science?

It would be my dream that out of such courses would come the sense of humor, the compassion of maturity and the calm serenity — qualities so lacking in this dark age — that, combined with the scientific spirit, would produce for us the Educated Man.

How To Deliver A Speech

(Continued from Page 4)

self, how can he expect an audience to believe in him?

There may be times, however, when you are quoting statistics, authority, or data involving details requiring exactness, that you will need to use cards or notes to avoid error. In such cases, do not attempt to hide the fact you are using cards. Bring them right out into the open and let the card itself lend a note of authority and exactness to your recitation of the facts noted on it.

To summarize and put into capsule size, then, the problem of delivery of a speech, we might say that the speaker should choose a subject he *wants* to talk about, prepare it in such a way that he wants to talk about it to *this* particular audience, outline it carefully, learn his outline well, practice the speech out loud once or twice, then use *his own* language (choice of words) and style (sentence structure), the only voice he possesses, and the same body he normally uses to aid him in speaking in order to communicate to his audience the ideas and feeling which constitutes the content of his speech. Speak firmly and in a friendly manner, looking directly at your audience, using the impulsive bodily gestures and movements that grow out of a desire to communicate. Keep your mind focused upon and occupied with the ideas you are communicating, and become concerned

about getting into the audience's minds the same thoughts you have in your own. Delivery thus becomes a means to an end—communication of thought and feeling—and not an end in itself.

Open Letter to a Beginning Public Speech Student

(Continued from Page 2)

writing down this and that seems like unnecessary busywork. But they are important to speech preparation and at the same time will take less and less of your time and effort as they become more automatic with practice. Be determined to follow through—to give these procedures an honest, wholehearted try.

You have selected (or had selected for you) a text and an instructor as your guides to effective speaking. Make it your sixth goal, then, to follow your guides faithfully, without taking uncharted short cuts until after you have mastered well the prescribed procedures.

So for a successful course, have a good time conversing with the gang in your class, as you do outside of class, and pay particular heed to what you have to say in a practical way by sticking with your text and instructor.

Cordially yours,
Paul D. Holtzman

Psychological Research in Speech

By LINDSEY S. PERKINS

A survey of research trends in psychology which offer special values to an understanding of the problems of speech.

PSYCHOLOGY IS INVALUABLE to Speech. A simple truism—perhaps too self-evident; but how many of us have done any considerable amount of reading in Psychology lately? (Great sinners, converted, sometimes qualify as preachers; and on this score, anyway, I claim the right to preach.)

Psychology is a wide field, and it cannot be surveyed in a single article. What follows is a broad sampling—a tasting here and there (with a little predigestion)—a few signposts in a wilderness of more than fifty journals, and an invitation to explore further. First we will indicate some general areas currently being investigated which are of substantial interest to Speech people, and then scan what is being done in each area.

We who work with the communicative arts (acting, debate, persuasion, discussion, interpretative reading) might expect to find most profitable work coming from the social psychologists. A number of institutions carry on extensive programs in this field. There are, for instance, the New York University Research Center for Human Relations, the Harvard University Department of Social Relations, the Michigan Research Center for Group Dynamics, the Institute for Research in Human Relations (Philadelphia), and the Moreno Institute (New York). Another classification of "studies in leadership qualities" serves to group the allied undertakings of the Ohio State University Studies in Leadership, the Leaderless Group Discussion studies of Bernard M. Bass, and the Empathy Test project of Willard A. Kerr and Boris J. Sperloff. In general communications, many studies are being initiated by or supported by the federal government, some carried on by the agencies themselves, some "jobbed" to universities. The Air Force and the Navy are especially active; there is, for example, the Human Resources Research Center, Lackland Air Force Base, San Antonio. Massachusetts Institute of Technology has started an International Communications Program in its Center for International Studies.

Independent researchers join these organized programs in dealing variously with leadership,

personality, empathy, communications in supervision, beliefs and attitudes, motivation, attention, and group dynamics. Scanning articles in these areas leads to information useful to an understanding of the communicative arts. What one finds is both rewarding and frustrating (non-Freudian sense).

Research in the general field of leadership is apt to be most helpful to Speech. The writer will bow his head in shame at this point, admitting that he did not know "leaderless group discussion" was being used in experimentation on the nature of leadership. Not only has this form of discussion been used (and this fact alone should insure our interest awareness), but much significant material on what makes a leader has been uncovered.

The Empathy Test evaluates ability which is "well known among 'natural' leaders." It is defined by the authors as "the ability to put yourself in the other person's position, establish rapport, and anticipate his reactions, feelings, and behaviors." The phenomenon, familiar to Speech teachers, of the "empathic response" of an audience to a reader or actor has not been considered. Still, the Kerr-Sperloff treatment is one which ought to be known to all teachers of the performing arts. We might need to know about our student's empathic ability, might even find it profitable to test our students. Can it be that the actor's or reader's failure to "project" is rooted in a lack of empathic ability, in large part?

It is now generally assumed that empathic ability is a factor in leadership, in the ability to motivate subordinates. Have we who teach public speaking, debate, or discussion included any exercises in our course outlines which emphasize this ability, or which teach it? Perhaps we ought to have.

The mode of handling some analyses of personality and leadership will lead Speech experts to ask questions. In the treatment of gesture, what we could call subjective orientation, a single focus on the individual, is most apparent: The communicative function of gesturing is not treated; attention is confined to autistic gestures and what

these gestures reveal about the inner self of the subject. Too, the Leaderless Group Discussion tests simply announced that a talkative person rates high in leadership. While a number of qualitative differences were listed, these stemmed almost exclusively from the personality of the subject. There was no consideration of logical reasoning, organization, use of persuasive appeals, or delivery as possible factors in the emergence of the leader.

Almost equally interesting are the psychological studies in beliefs and attitudes, and in motivation. Don't be scared off the range by titles such as Howard V. Perlmutter's "Some Characteristics of the Xenophilic Personality."¹ The writer found this a fascinating analysis of attitudes which influence the acceptance or rejection of ideas. Perlmutter's article is one of a series, still in progress at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, on "Personality Determinants of International Communications." Similar research is being carried on for the armed services and in industrial psychology. For all that has been attempted recently, research here is still in its infancy. Much more will be done, if only because so many different organizations are concerned. Such experimental work, added to that of ancient and modern empirical observers, is sure to be most valuable to our understanding of Speech problems.

Psychology's approach to industrial communications is apt to disappoint Speech people. Admittedly, the psychological concept of industrial communications falls more nearly in the field of "management" than "communication." Yet more may soon be done with purely communicative aspects. One investigator in this field, finding responders to his questionnaire concerned about meetings and discussion techniques, reached this conclusion: "As a beginning, the nature of communication within an organization should be investigated."² This writer likes to think that we Speech people know more about techniques of communication than the personnel psychologists, whether in industry, merchandising, banking, or government. He doesn't like to think about how little we are doing along the line of investigating the nature of communication in meetings, assemblies, training programs, supervision. We need not turn our backs on Speech as a liberal arts discipline, an aid to intellectual growth; but we ought to leave the ivory tower long enough to find out how much work is waiting for us in the "practical world."

Finally, we come to an area which ought to be loaded with material for us. Sadly, your reviewer begs to report that he does not find it so and, like any old moss-back reactionary, longs for a return to some of the former emphases of social psychology.

We will lump together the approaches called sociometry, group dynamics, human relations, and interpersonal relations. We do so for the benefit of Speech scholars, and issue a foreword of warning: There is a bit too much "fadism" and obsession with cant phraseology, with an effort to make something sound new. A British comment on sociometry:

"If these techniques have not been greatly used in industry in this country, it is perhaps because of their apparent naivete, to some extent (but not entirely) deceptive. . . They tend to be part of the armoury. . . of those people who study methods of teaching other people how to train supervisors in industry."³ The British are slow about following the high priests of "new-heaven-and-new-earth" academic movements.

Moreover, granting the sincerity of these "human-interpersonal-relationists," there is still a question about their usefulness to us. Unfortunately, the normal seems rarely to be considered, and the abnormal is emphasized—as it was with Freud. It is not the community, but the irrational, biased community; a sample tool, the psychodrama, is a therapeutic device for helping the seriously maladjusted. Much of the work in this field seems to look for the maladjusted. In this emphasis, one wonders if the experimenter really sees the approach-to-balance which is achieved in most human relations.

Theoretically, you and I deal with the "normal" person or group. Quite possibly we may learn something from social psychology; but we will do well to take our sense of balance to our reading here. In the meantime, we might pray for more attention to the "normal."

To this lengthy stricture let us add: There is valuable material here on the nature of groups, and useful ideas about opinion formation and opinion change can be extracted by the Speech person who knows what he is looking for.

Current research in psychology invites the inspection of all who are concerned with oral communication. You will find that you have a good deal of winnowing and sifting to do; you will have to analyze, synthesize and apply material.

(Continued on Page 23)

TRENDS in Speech in the Eastern States

By CARROLL C. ARNOLD

THIS IS "TRENDS" FIRST APPEARANCE as an annual rather than quarterly department of TODAY'S SPEECH. The editor herewith undertakes the new assignment of reviewing, summarizing, and commenting upon important developments of the past year which seem likely to have wide interest and influence in the study, teaching, and practical use of oral communication. Readers who call such developments to the editor's attention will earn his deep gratitude. If the area of any reader's interest has been passed over in this report (and several branches of our discipline have suffered) it is because the editor is not astute enough to discover the significance of all that goes on in our ever-widening field. He needs and will appreciate the assistance of one and all.

THE PROFESSION

During the recent political campaign we heard much of "depressed industries" and "spotty unemployment." In contrast, though the men and women entering our profession seem unlikely to become independently wealthy in their vocation, they found themselves more sought after than seeking in 1954. Informal reports from a number of colleges and universities graduating potential teachers and practitioners of the speech arts strongly indicated that the ratio of positions to candidates was markedly better in 1954 than in the preceding year.

Although no statistical survey is available to confirm these reports from department chairmen and others, scattered bits of information illustrate the modest "boom." One eastern university received three times as many inquiries concerning teaching candidates in speech and drama as it received in 1953. Two liberal arts colleges in search of instructors in public speaking received only three and two suitable applications respectively. Though no specific information concerning the demand for elementary and secondary school teachers of speech is at hand, we know of one graduate holding a baccalaureate degree in speech and a temporary teaching certificate who was able to choose from among invitations from a city, a village, and a rural centralized school without filing applications outside her home county.

All of this is pleasant to report but a glance at

typical salary schedules will soon provide one reason for the rising ratio of vacancies to applicants. The U. S. Office of Education has recently announced that the salary range for beginning teachers in elementary and secondary schools in 1953-54 stood at \$2,200-\$2,600; for teachers with ten or more years of experience the range was \$4,000-\$6,000, and the average salary for all teachers at these levels was \$3,400. And if instructorships in colleges and universities were difficult to fill last year, part of the explanation may be found in the NEA Research Division's study of 1953 salaries in 417 colleges and universities. The highest salary paid, or the median of maximum salaries paid to instructors in teachers' colleges was \$4,333; in state universities, \$4,530; in municipal universities, \$4,750; in privately supported colleges and universities, \$4,083. In all academic ranks, the NEA Research Division reported, the maximums in nonpublic colleges and universities were lower than the lowest averages for comparable ranks in publicly supported institutions. In the private liberal arts college, the Division concludes, "will probably be found the ultimate of the high devotion which characterizes the entire system of education in America."

The other chief explanation for what appears to be a rising demand for school and college teachers of speech is, of course, to be found in rising school enrollments. The U. S. Office of Education recently estimated current elementary school enrollment at 1,473,000 above the 1953-1954 level. Secondary school enrollments were thought to be about 219,000 over last year; and university, college and professional school registrations were 89,000 higher. For 1955-56, the Department estimates that elementary and secondary schools will have a further increase of about 1,558,000 pupils.

"Trends" has no way of knowing whether the demand for teachers of speech is closely related to the rise and fall of school and college populations; but it seems clear that if we have found minor difficulty in supplying the need for qualified teachers in the past year or two, we may expect *much* difficulty in the near future unless we draw more students into teacher-training programs. Elementary and secondary school enroll-

ments alone are expected to be 7,500,00 larger in 1959 than in 1954 and college registrations are also expected to grow steadily, though at a slower rate, initially.

TO DISCUSS OR NOT TO DISCUSS

Reliance upon the methods of group discussion and conference has grown rapidly in recent years. Interest in conference as a method of educating and resolving problems has spread from education to industry and back again; and in some places at least, faith in the efficacy of informal patterns of discourse undoubtedly went beyond the bounds of reason and evidence. Now, it appears, the period of incautious enthusiasm is ending and one of judicious and discriminating appraisal is beginning. This has been particularly noticeable in business and professional journals, where articles appearing in 1954, almost without exception, cautioned against the supposition that *any* group under *any* circumstances can conduct fruitful discussions.

Two such articles are worthy of notice here because of the high value of their advice and their representative character. Robert F. Bales, writing in the *Harvard Business Review* (March-April 1954), advises his business and industrial audience that successful conferences are most likely to occur in meetings of not more than seven persons, all of whom can see each other, and among whom there is a balance between "high participators" and "low participators." If such a group will investigate facts before attacking solutions, will concentrate on achieving mutual understanding of both feelings and reasons, and give due attention to clarity in verbal expression, Mr. Bales believes its attempt at discussion is likely to be fruitful. These important prerequisites for successful discussion are the fruits of several years of experimental investigation by Mr. Bales and others at Harvard's Laboratory of Social Relations.

Addressing themselves especially to those responsible for organizing industrial training conferences, B. J. Speroff and Charles Noty have offered advice of the same cautious sort in the *Journal of the American Society of Training Directors* (July-August 1954). Speroff and Noty contend that training conferences are unlikely to succeed unless special efforts are made to assure competent leadership. Candidates for such leadership, they believe, can and should be carefully tested for their ability to respond empathically,

attitudes toward relevant subjects, intelligence and knowledge, interpersonal acceptance, emotional stability, and verbal fluency and communicativeness.

Such re-examinations of the factors that limit and those that promote fruitful discussion are likely to be of much more value than the vague and often uncritical endorsements of ritualistic discussion which could be found in many business and professional journals but a year or two ago. And perhaps the spate of investigations casting doubt on the merit of discussion as a method of teaching foretell a similar re-examination of informality in the classroom. Three recent inquiries of this sort deserve mention here if only because they call into question assumptions of long standing.

Two recent investigations have cast at least some doubt upon the general belief that "democratic" classroom procedures tend to produce superior achievement and better attitudes toward course work. Both studies¹ sought to compare discussion with recitation-drill procedures in the classroom and both produced the same general conclusions: that students in classes conducted as discussions showed no significant differences in achievement when compared with students in classes conducted as recitation-drill sections. One of the investigators (Egash) found some evidence of dissatisfaction with the instructor when classes were conducted as discussions.

The third recent study critical of discussion as a process conducive to learning and problem-solving was reported in September 1954 to the American Psychological Association at its New York convention. According to the account carried by the *New York Herald Tribune* (September 9, 1954), Dr. Irving Lorge of Teachers College, Columbia University, denied the familiar claim that group decisions are likely to be superior to the decisions of individual members acting alone. Dr. Lorge's evidence, based on experiments with 800 Naval and Air Force reserve cadets, showed no group of persons acting more intelligently than the most intelligent individual members of the group. These conclusions, as represented in news reports, are quite the reverse of other experimental evidence that has been generally accepted and several times confirmed since the 1930's.

Whatever the final evidence may show, it is clear that group discussion as a process of teaching, learning, and problem solving is undergoing some severe second looks. This trend in specula-

tion and research will deserve the attention of the educational and industrial communities alike.

THEATRE AND TV

The editor of "Trends" recently spent an interesting afternoon exploring the current files of the American Educational Theatre Association's Board of Research. The papers and reports found there revealed several important developments in educational theatre and television, some of which we are privileged to reveal here for the first time *anywhere!*

AETA's Committee on Drama in Television (Keith M. Engar, Chairman) recently completed a survey of college and university activity in producing dramatic programs for television. These institutions are moving cautiously and slowly, the committee found; but the reason for cautiousness is not financial, as one might suppose, but the difficulty of securing scripts worthy of the investment of time and money which dramatic productions for television necessarily involve.

Looking ahead, the AETA committee believes that filmed drama will become increasingly important as more and more educational TV stations take the air, but few institutions now have kine-scope or film equipment. Once again, though the costs are high, most educational theatre people believe the needed money can be found when and if there are dramatic scripts worthy of the cost and effort.

As a way of minimizing the script problem, the investigating committee suggests creation of a national TV Script Exchange and, perhaps, a Film Exchange comparable to the already successful AETA Manuscript Play Project, now in its eleventh year.

From the Research Board's files we also discovered that our colleagues in educational theatre are developing a mounting interest in opera as a dramatic form. A research report written by Wallace Dace of Russell Sage College pointed out that the NBC-TV Opera Theatre, the Opera Department of the Berkshire Music Center, and a number of major colleges and universities have now adopted the policy of producing operas exclusively in English. Mr. Dace believes the mounting pressures on the New York City Center and the Metropolitan Opera indicate that our major opera houses, too, may before long be producing more works in English than in the original language of the librettos. There is already clear evidence that publishers, authors, and authors' agents are increasingly interested in the publica-

tion of good English translations of important librettos.

From other papers we examined we discovered there is considerable conflict of opinion concerning the ideal character of graduate study in drama, theatre, and allied areas. Surveys suggest that the trend of *opinion* runs in favor of academic and theoretical emphases in graduate programs but the trend of *practice* is at least suspected of running in the opposite direction. At least one university in the eastern part of the United States is seriously considering creation of a new graduate degree—one that would be frankly a technical or apprenticeship degree and clearly distinguished from the more academic M.A., M.F.A., and Ph.D.

That school and college drama groups often seek out their audience rather than the reverse is no longer news, but the invention of a 175-pound system of stage setting and lighting which can be dismantled and carried in the luggage compartment of an ordinary passenger car certainly is news. Just such a system, requiring no overhead support, providing a thirty-five foot opening and walls eleven feet high, has been perfected at Alabama Polytechnic Institute. The system is fully described and instructions for building it are given in *Portable Stage Setting and Lighting*, an illustrated pamphlet obtainable from the author, Telfair B. Peet, Department of Dramatic Arts, Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn, Alabama. With some eighty colleges and universities and an unknown number of high schools sponsoring plays-on-tour, Professor Peet's luggage-compartment stage should be of widespread interest.

FORENSICS

There continues to be clear evidence of vigor in forensic activities in our part of the land. Three recent developments illustrate the new stages of growth and experimentation. During 1954, the New York State University College for Teachers at Albany became headquarters for a newly founded New York State High School Forensic League. Long without such an organization, so successful in some thirty-five other states, New York high schools will now have the services of a league formed to encourage forensic events in high schools, distribute debate materials, manuals, bibliographies, etc. Inquiries concerning the organization and its services should be addressed to Professor Elenora Carrino at the league's headquarters.

At the college level the emphasis on providing

diversified forensic experience continues. This is among the objectives of the newly formed Atlantic Coast Conference (Clemson, Duke, Maryland, North Carolina, North Carolina State, South Carolina, Virginia, and Wake Forest) forensic group and has become the special project for 1954-1955 of the Ivy League Debate Conference (Brown, Columbia, Cornell, Harvard, Pennsylvania, Princeton). The Atlantic Coast Conference will add extempore speaking and afterdinner speaking to the program of its annual debate tournament and conference. The Ivy group is concentrating on seeking out audiences and on securing variety in

debate propositions and styles in its home-and-home schedule of debates. The Ivy group has also established a central "expense pool" through which schools financially burdened by their obligation to visit the campus of each other member school will be reimbursed by schools whose central location keeps travel costs at a minimum.

1. Harold Guetzkow, E. Lowell Kelly, and W. J. McKeachie, "An Experimental Comparison of Recitation, Discussion, and Tutorial Methods in College Teaching," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 45 (April 1954), 193-207; and Albert Eglash, "A Group-Discussion Method of Teaching Psychology," *ibid.*, 45 (May 1954), 257-267.

Personality Building Through Speech Training

(Continued from Page 10)

unteer in class work, and although he might never be a brilliant student he could keep up with his class and take part in student activities.

His family physician is delighted with his personality gain and his ability to live easily with his speech handicap. His parents, at graduation, realize that speech training had changed him from a mal-adjusted boy into a well adjusted young man who successfully passed for army service and leaves to enter with no fears of the contacts and adjustments he must make.

A very different case was that of Jimmy S——, a fair student, intelligent, attractive, but strangely enough not too popular with his classmates. He had interesting ideas but an arrogant manner and a conceited opinion of his speaking powers. In Public Speaking class his criticisms were generally destructive rather than constructive. At times he had a jerky, uneven utterance, a concealed reason for his attendance in P.S. class. Tense, inhibited, his statements were inexact, his vocabulary limited. He needed poise and confidence in himself more than *speech correction*. What did the two year course do for him? To quote his statement in his senior year:

"I've learned how to make friends of my fellow students.

"Being Senior Class President is a thrill I can chalk up to the poise, confidence and personality building learned in my Effective Speaking Course."

There is no nostrum for personality building, yet long experience and research in the teaching of speech point up this strikingly realistic fact. There is given to the speech teacher the privilege of bringing home to the student a new conception of himself as an individual and fostering a sense of personal security which in child or adult is the true basis of good personality.

Psychological Research in Speech

(Continued from Page 23)

You will make applications which were not within the conception of the psychologist who apparently did not bear *oral* communication in mind while working with communication.

You will also find that psychological experiments of the past few years have produced findings of great importance to your field; and you may be led to start thinking and working with friends who are in Psychology. The Interdepartmental Committee on Research Communication which Franklin H. Knower heads at Ohio State University may well have grown out of the need for an overall look at the communicative process. Profitably, you and I might learn what we can from Psychology, list what we need to know, and initiate similar joint action in our institutions.

¹ *Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 38, 2nd Half (October, 1954), 291-300.

² George Odiorne, "An Application of the Communications Audit," *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 7, No. 2 (Summer, 1954), 240.

³ Thelma Vaness, in a review of J. L. Moreno's *Who Shall Survive?* *Occupational Psychology*, Vol. 28, No. 3 (July, 1954), 183-184.

SPEECH BOOKS IN REVIEW

By ARTHUR EISENSTADT

Traditionally, text offerings in winter tend to be somewhat fewer in number than in the spring and fall book seasons. So it is with the publications which have come out in the past few months. However, a bright note on this paucity has also appeared: those works which relate to speech and allied disciplines seem to have maintained a rather high standard of soundness and usefulness.

For example, long in the making—and likewise long in viewpoint—is the one-volume *History of Speech Education in America*, edited by Karl R. Wallace. Covering the period from colonial times to about 1925, this work treats "Rhetoric, the art of verbal communication" and the major areas of speech correction and pathology, oral interpretation, and educational dramatics. English and colonial backgrounds, the elocutionary movement, private and public speech education, and the educational theatre are all given scholarly and penetrating examination. The chapters are written by widely known specialists and reflect creditably the stature of both the profession and the expert collaborators who compiled this volume. Regrettably, little attempt is made either to evaluate or to over-view the subject matter, but without question, this work enriches the very field of speech education it undertakes to explore.

Another publication dealing with the educational process and speech is *Secondary School Activities*, by Gruber and Beatty. Its goal is to aid in "the development of the free, responsible, self motivated, democratic American citizen." To this end are discussed extra-curricular student activities, such as the assembly, club programs, speech, and dramatics. An extremely interesting but overly-concise chapter describes secondary school broadcasting, public speaking, debating, storytelling, interpretive reading, and choral speaking. Brief mention is also given the speech arts council, a self-perpetuating teacher group which can integrate and correlate the speech activities within the individual school. For perspective on the role of speech at the secondary school level, here is a very readable and serviceable volume.

Those who train others, whether in school or out, will uncover rich material for group discussion, some excellent approaches to the educative process, and good reason for self-examination in a

remarkable text recently issued. It is titled, *Education Through Psychology*, by Hirsch L. Silverman, humanist, psychologist, and teacher. Students of communication will find his concepts of language, vocabulary, and verbalism stimulating, as, for example, "Language, then, is the label, the symbol of ideas: words are handles by which man carries ideas around with him. . . teachers too often encourage verbalism in place of real ideas." Language as a tool of thought, the inculcation of habits and skills in learning, the emotional outcomes of learning, and an analysis of motivation are all touched upon from a philosophical and idealistic approach. The results are vivid, challenging, and thought-provoking.

The Reference Shelf Series has produced two timely titles. The first is *The UN Today*, edited by William W. Wade, and includes units on the Security Council, the veto, the UN and the atom, and the United States and the UN. Among the contributors are Lodge, Dulles, Hamilton, Berle and many other nationally recognized figures. The companion publication is *The Censorship of Books*, with Walter M. Daniels as editor. The Nature of the Problem, Moral Censorship, Political Censorship, United States Libraries Abroad, Textbooks, and The Censors and the Librarian comprise its major divisions, with some sixty articles by such authors as Cousins, Budenz, Childs, Van Doren, and Benjamin Fine. Both works give authoritative and well-rounded presentations which amply reward the reader.

Two of the earliest co-authors of college texts on group discussion, Auer and Ewbank, have collaborated on a revised edition of their *Handbook for Discussion Leaders*. In clear-cut, succinct style, they discuss group behavior, types and purposes of group talk, and the differences between public and group discussion. A final section treats how to measure and evaluate the results of group and individual participation, while appendices give projects for discussion leaders and selected reference and source materials. Although brief to the point of terseness in parts, this book represents an excellent source for reference and fundamentals materials. It should be especially valuable to those with little time or opportunity to study more completely the process of verbal group interchange.

Also in this field is *Discussion and Conference*, by Sattler and Miller, long-time teachers of both college and adult classes. The authors pose an interesting — and debatable — distinction between conference and discussion, and then explore the aspects of leadership, participation, and language usage in these two media of group examination. Like Auer and Ewbank, they treat public meetings separately, and also give some helpful specifics on the types and arrangements of radio and TV discussions. Appendix materials on case problems, human relations, exercises, and bibliography round out what should be a well-received text.

This department some time ago termed television "one of the fastest-growing speech fields". Since that time—less than a year—upwards of a dozen texts on various video problems have made their appearance. One of the latest newcomers is *Television Writing and Selling*, by TV script editor Edward B. Roberts. Dramatics enthusiasts, whether play-goers or play-doers, will be fascinated by Roberts' treatment of Settings and Special Effects, Contrasts in Techniques, or History of a One-Act Play, to name a handful of chapter headings. The work is well illustrated with examples, photographs, and script selections, and is written in a friendly, personal style which makes for pleasant and highly informative reading. How to market and protect scripts, the television code, and a poignant viewpoint on art in TV brings a sound book to a sound conclusion.

[Professor Eisenon, a leading authority in language rehabilitation for the aphasic patient, states that two main purposes underlie the revision of his *Examining for Aphasia Manual*:—"to provide the clinician with expository material for understanding the problem of aphasia and the problems of the aphasic" and "to provide the author with an opportunity to present improvements in the examination materials and techniques." The first of these purposes is accomplished by a discussion of the language, intellectual and personality disturbances of the aphasic, a description of some useful tests of intellectual changes, and a section devoted to the differential diagnosis of the congenitally aphasic child. The second aim consists mainly of more detailed instructions for administration. Another valuable feature of the *Manual* is its sixty selected references on the diagnosis and evaluation of aphasic disorders. The importance of the *Manual* has been enhanced by this 1954 revision and it will undoubtedly continue to be one of the most widely

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used tests of aphasic disturbances. Reviewed by James V. Frick, *Pennsylvania State University*.]

In sum, it would seem that the texts here reviewed are small in number, but large in worth. Someone once said that one answer to improvement in pedagogy was fewer and better books. Perhaps we are on that road.

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AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

- General Sources*
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Fun With Speech Sounds, 11 minutes, black and white or color. Children's poems and rhymes. Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films, 65 E. South Water St.

Fun With Speech. Five 12" vinylite discs at 78 r.p.m. Children's stories with graded speech materials. Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Ill.

Good Speech for Gary, 22 minutes, black and white or color. Treats a well organized speech program. New York: McGraw-Hill and Co., Text Film Dept., 330 W. 42 St., N. Y. 36.

Improving Your Pronunciation, 10 minutes, black and white. Trenton, N. J.: State Museum, Audio-Visual Department.

Man In The Window, 28 minutes, black and white. Rehabilitation therapy at New York's Bellevue Hospital Rehabilitation Center. New York: Association Films, 347 Madison Ave., N. Y. 17.

Telephone Courtesy, 30 minutes, black and white. Trenton, N. J.: State Museum, Audio-Visual Department.

EFFECTS OF SOAP OPERAS

A content analysis of 43 daytime serials (soap operas) by Rudolf Arnheim, reported in *Radio Research 1942-43* concludes that the housewife listener "is encouraged to view failures as happening only to other people, and is confirmed in her belief that her suffering is caused not by herself, but by the imperfection and villainy of others. . . . Men are shown to be inferior to women, the working class is ignored, learning is deprecated. . . . Daily removal to a daytime serial world of violent passion and suspense may well weaken the listener's sensitiveness to the less thrilling opportunities of real life. . . .

"This survey indicates that radio serials maintain a firm grip in so many millions of American women because they satisfy their psychological needs the easy way. . . . Producers of radio serials take pride in asserting that they give their audience exactly what it wants to get." From Daniel Katz, et al, editor, *Public Opinion and Propaganda*, Dryden Press, 1954, pp. 779, \$6.25.

EDITORIAL: Those Tough Speech Problems



Apparently there was a lot of interest in the symposium in the November issue on "My Toughest Speech Problem—and How I Solved It." In the editor's files at present are a dozen more reports; but if this is to prove a genuinely helpful feature, we need the cooperation of many of our readers in sending in their own experiences and in soliciting those of their acquaintances. Here is a problem on which cooperation is required if we are to help one another. May we hear from you? Meanwhile, many will be interested in the following account written by an unusually perceptive 15-year old boy:

EMERGENCE FROM STUTTERING

My first year in high school was the most miserable year I have ever experienced in all my fifteen years of age. Prior to this, during the latter years of grade school, I hardly noticed the fact that I stuttered. But upon entering Crosby High School my impediment of speech had become much more acute. That is, I became aware more vividly that I had a speech handicap.

In my English classes I used to watch a huge clock which was stationed directly over the teacher's desk and actually hoped and prayed fervently that the bell would ring before the teacher was able to call upon me to recite. By chance when I did happen to be called upon I could just about utter the teacher's name. I spoke in very short, very chopped-up, and very broken-up phrases. My stomach muscles were constricted into knots. And in addition to this misery, while I was being called upon a nerve or vein in my abdomen used to throb incessantly; it would not cease throbbing. To make words emit from my mouth I sometimes would have to incline or shake my head to force some words forth.

The most bitter frustration was when the teachers asked questions, and I was not able to answer them for fear of being ridiculed and pitied as I stuttered the answers forth. I had invariably a few good days I was able to speak four words straight. Even these I blurted out and inevitably stopped in the middle of a thought. Once I stopped, I could not summon up sufficient rhythm of voice to

start again. In short, my self-confidence in myself was shattered. Finally, deciding to withstand this torture no longer I made up my mind to take speech lessons, an unsolicited action which I shall never forget. I was taught an innumerable amount of useful knowledge pertaining to speech defects: such as speaking distinctly and slowly, relaxing, and knowing when and how to relax, procuring the essential mental attitude, that is if you fail one day there will always be another day.

But one of all the things taught to me by my marvelous instructor was greatly emphasized and that was gaining the correct mental attitude. Without it my worthy instructor said that even if you were to pronounce your words with exactness, putting the tongue in certain places of your mouth in order to pronounce certain words, this would not help you to any great extent. I am now perfectly capable of reading four or five paragraphs with little or no stumbling.

But above everything else, above everything thus mentioned heretofore, the paramount requirement that I have gained is a good personality. I was a very bitter boy, hating myself for not being able to speak when the proper time came. Thus I became irritable and this irritance was transferred to everyone I came in contact with.

I was not able to cope with everyday problems; that is, if I had had a quarrel with my brother, for instance, I would remember it long after my brother had forgotten about it. I thought only about my many faults, not my good features. My instructor spent a lot of time teaching me how to "get around these problems" which were depressing me to such a terribly great extent.

I now speak with a greater fluency, a greater easiness, and much greater smoothness. I also think that my personality is proportional to my smoothness of speech. I am reflecting on my past when I say that I have been transformed from a mal-adjusted boy to a well-adjusted boy.

The words that I have written heretofore are my own. Shall we say, in a manner of speaking, they are unsolicited.

John Dansereau
Waterbury, Conn.

Developing Rapport in the Public Speaking Classroom

(Continued from Page 13)

weaknesses. For succeeding speeches, gradually point out the weaknesses, making it a rule to find something nice to say about each speech (even if only to compliment the speaker on his voice or volume or choice of subject). Make all criticisms constructive, remembering, however, that it is sometimes necessary to tear down in order to build up. Never tear down without building up!

Later in the course, just before the mid-term for example, provide for class participation in evaluation. Have the non-speaking students on a particular day grade the student speakers. Make comparisons between the rankings given to a day's group of speakers by the instructor and the medians of the class rankings. Search out possible reasons for the deviations, if any. Use them as a means of teaching the class what to look for in evaluating speeches. Have the class suggest possible reasons for any deviations. Examine variations within student-assigned grades and search for reasons to explain such variations.

Give and take between students and instructor strengthens rather than weakens both rapport and education. The writer has for years had his students grade the final speeches in the beginning course and has averaged the median student grade for the final speech. Seldom has there been a marked deviation between the two and the median grades of the students have been as frequently lower than the instructor's grade as they have been higher.

A few additional suggestions for building and

maintaining rapport, which are pertinent throughout the course, are the following:

Be available for consultation. Don't just list office hours. Be in your office at the hours listed. Provide for individual consultations at hours other than those listed. Some students have classes and other commitments which conflict with the hours you have listed. They cannot avail themselves of your aid unless you do provide for individual consultations which are at a time mutually agreeable.

Above all, keep your commitments. Don't break your word. Keep faith with your students and they will keep faith with you. They cannot learn to speak effectively unless they have faith in their instructor. By living up to your word, you guarantee the student the proper climate for effective learning. You build and maintain rapport in and out of the public speaking class room.

FROM THE SPEAKER'S NOTE BOOK

"I became a teacher because I was tired of buying education and decided to try selling it for a time."

—Henry Adams

• • • •

"They that can give up essential liberty to obtain a little temporary safety deserve neither liberty nor safety."

—Benjamin Franklin

• • • •

"The winds and waves are always on the side of the ablest navigators."

—Edward Gibbon

• • • •

"My other piece of advice," said Mr. Micawber, "you know. Annual income twenty pounds, annual expenditure nineteen six, result happiness. Annual income twenty pounds, annual expenditure twenty pounds ought and six, result misery."

—Charles Dickens

• • • •

"Men will not suffer bad things because their ancestors have suffered worse."

—Edmund Burke

• • • •

"Poverty takes away so many means of doing good, and produces so much inability to resist evil, both natural and moral, that it is by all virtuous means to be avoided."

—Samuel Johnson

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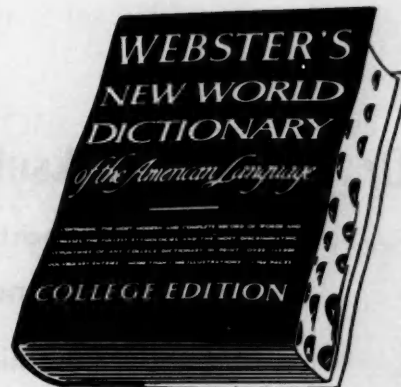
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